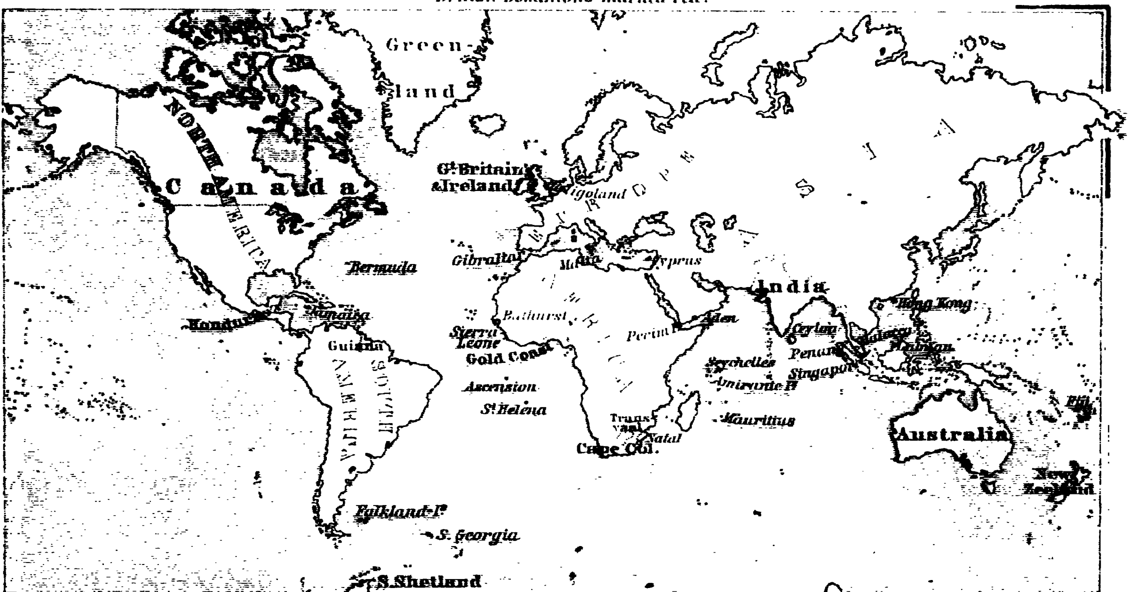
Front.

THE BRITISH DOMINIONS. 1880.

British Dominions marked red.



London, Macmillan & Co.

Historical Course for Schools.

HISTORY

OF

ENGLAND.

BY

EDITH THOMPSON.

NEW EDITION, REVISED. WITH COLOURED MAPS

London:

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AND NEW YORK.

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PREFACE.

THE appearance of the first of the series of small histories to be published under my editorship seems to call for a few words from me. The present History of England takes for granted the views and divisions laid down in my General Sketch of European History so far as they concern the particular history of England. The points in English history which were there touched on as parts of general history, with special regard to their bearings on the history of other countries, are here dealt with more fully, as a consecutive narrative of the history of the particular nation and country of England. It will perhaps be found to be more compressed than some other volumes of the series, as the history of our country naturally appealed to a wider circle than any other, and it was thought right to keep the book within as small a compass as might be.

The book is strictly the work of its author. I have throughout given it such a degree of supervision as to secure its general accuracy; but with regard to the details of the narrative, both as to their choice and their treatment, they are the author's own; on these points I have not thought it right to go beyond suggestion. It

may perhaps be hard for me to speak impartially of a book to whose general merit I am pledged by its mere appearance; but I can honestly say that it is the result of genuine work among the last and best lignts on the subject. I believe it to be thoroughly trustworthy, and that it will give clearer and truer views on most of the points on which clear and true views are specially needed than can be found in any other book on the same small scale.

EDWARD A. FREEMAN.

SOMERLEAZE, WELLS,
March 8th, 1875.

NOTE.

IT having been suggested to me by persons engaged in education that the addition of some maps and the expansion of certain parts of the narrative would make this book more useful in schools, I have accordingly, and with Mr. Freeman's sanction, prepared this edition, which I trust will be found an improvement.

E. T.

July, 1878.

CONTENTS.

LIST OF MAPS.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

	B.C.
Cæsar lands in Britain	55, 54
	A.D.
Claudius in Britain	43
Caradoc subdued	50
Revolt of Boadicea	61
Agricola governs Britain	78—84
Hadrian in Britain	120
Severus dies at York	211
Martyrdom of St. Alban	about 304
The Roman legions leave Britain	about 410
THE ENGLISH CONQUEST:—Landing of Hengest and Horsa in Thanet	449
Hengest founds the Kingdom of Kent	455
Landing of Ælle and Cissa—settlement of South-Saxons	477
Landing of Cerdic and Cynric—settlement of West-Saxons	495
Cerdic and Cynric found the Kingdom of Wessex	519
Arthur defeats the West-Saxons at Badbury	520
Ida founds the Kingdom of Bernicia	547
Æthelbert of Kent converted by Augustine	597
Edwin converted by Paulinus	627
Oswald King of the Northumbrians; Aidan Bishop of Lindisfarn	635
Ine King of the West-Saxons	688—726
Offa King of the Mercians	757—796
First landing of the Danes in England	789

	A.D.
Egbert King of the West-Saxons	802
Egbert becomes Lord over all the English Kingdoms	829
Æthelwulf	837
Æthelbald	858
Æthelbert	860
Æthelred I.	866
The Danes land in East-Anglia	866
Alfred	871
Battle of Ethandun; Peace of Wedmore	878
Edward the Elder	901
Edward becomes Lord of all Britain	924
Æthelstan	925
Battle of Brunanburh	937
Edmund the Magnificent	940
Edred	946
Final submission of the Northumbrians	about 954
Edwy	955
Edgar	959
Edgar crowned at Bath	973
Edward the Martyr	975
Æthelred II.	979
The Danish invasions begin again	980
Battle of Maldon; Danegeld first paid	991
THE DANISH CONQUEST:—**Swegen** acknowledged King.	1013
Death of **Swegen**; restoration of **Æthelred**	1014
Edmund Ironside	1016
War between **Edmund** and **Cnut**; the Kingdom divided	1016
THE DANISH KINGS:—**Cnut** chosen King of all England	1017
Harold and **Harthacnut**; the Kingdom again divided	1035
Harold King of all England	1037
Harthacnut	1040
HOUSE OF CERDIC restored:—**Edward the Confessor.**	1042
Struggle against the foreigners	1051—1052
Revolt of the Northumbrians; consecration of Westminister	1065
HOUSE OF GODWIN:—**Harold II.**	1066
Battle of Stamford Bridge, Sept. 25	1066

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

	A.D.
THE NORMAN CONQUEST :—Battle of Hastings, Oct. 14	1066
THE NORMAN KINGS :—William I. crowned, Dec. 25	1066
Harrying of Northumberland	1069
Defence of the Isle of Ely	1071
Domesday drawn up	1085—1086
Meeting at Salisbury—all freemen to swear allegiance	1086
William II.	1087
Malcolm III. of Scotland slain at Alnwick	1093
Henry I. :—Charter of Liberties granted, Aug. 5	1100
Battle of Tinchebrai, Sept. 28; Normandy won	1106
Stephen	1135
Battle of the Standard, Aug. 22	1138
War of Stephen and Matilda	1139—1153
HOUSE OF ANJOU :—Henry II.	1154
Constitutions of Clarendon	1164
Conquest of Ireland	1169—1171
Murder of Archbishop Thomas, Dec. 29	1170
Richard I.	1189
Richard seized by Leopold, Duke of Austria	1192
John	1199
Normandy lost	1204
John becomes a vassal of Rome, May 15	1213
THE GREAT CHARTER granted, June 15	1215
Henry III.	1216
Charter of the Forest granted, Nov. 6	1217
The Barons' War; battle of Lewes, May 14	1264
Earl Simon's Parliament meets, Jan. 20; battle of Evesham, Aug. 4	1265
Edward I.	1272
Conquest of Wales	1283
The Jews expelled from England	1290
Final organization of Parliament	1295
Conquest of Scotland	1296
The Confirmation of the Charters, Nov. 5	1297
Edward II.	1307
Battle of Bannockburn, June 24	1314

	A.D.
Battle of Athenree, Aug. 10	1316
Edward II. deposed; **Edward III.** becomes King	1327
The late King Edward II. murdered, Sept. 21	1327
Independence of Scotland acknowledged	1328
The Hundred Years' War begins	1338
Battle of Crécy, Aug. 26; battle of Neville's Cross, Oct. 12	1346
Surrender of Calais, Aug. 3	1347
Battle of Poitiers, Sept. 19	1356
Peace of Bretigny, May 8	1360
The Good Parliament meets, April 28; the Black Prince dies, June 8	1376
Richard II.	1377
The Peasant Insurrection	1381
John Wycliffe dies, Dec. 31	1384
Richard II. deposed; HOUSE OF LANCASTER:—**Henry IV.** becomes King	1399
Statute against Heretics passed; William Sautree burned	1401
Battle of Shrewsbury, July 21	1403
Henry V.	1413
The Hundred Years' War renewed: Battle of Azincourt, Oct. 25	1415
Surrender of Rouen, Jan. 19	1419
Treaty of Troyes, May 21	1420
Henry VI.	1422
Jack Cade's insurrection	1450
End of the Hundred Years' War	1453
Wars of York and Lancaster; first battle of St. Albans, May 22	1455
Battle of Wakefield, Dec. 30	1460
HOUSE OF YORK:—**Edward IV.**	1461
Battle of Barnet, April 14; battle of Tewkesbury, May 4	1471
Edward V.; **Richard III.**	1483
Battle of Bosworth, Aug. 22	1485
THE TUDORS:—**Henry VII.**	1485
Perkin Warbeck hanged	1499
Marriage of Margaret Tudor to James IV. of Scotland	1503
Henry VIII.	1509

	A.D.
Battle of Flodden, Sept. 9	1513
Marriage of Henry with Katharine of Aragon declared null and void	1533
The Papal power in England set aside	1534
Wales incorporated with England; dissolution of the lesser monasteries; Anne Boleyn beheaded	1536
The greater monasteries dissolved; Act of the Six Articles.	1539
Ireland raised to the rank of a Kingdom	1542
Edward VI.	1547
Battle of Pinkie, Sept. 10	1547
Mary	1553
Wyatt's insurrection, Jan.—Feb.; Jane Grey beheaded, Feb. 12; reconciliation with Rome, Nov. 30	1554
Ridley and Latimer burned at Oxford, Oct. 16	1555
Calais taken by the French	1558
Elizabeth	1558
Act of Supremacy; Act of Uniformity	1559
Mary of Scotland beheaded, Feb. 8	1587
The Spanish Armada defeated, July 21-30.	1588
Charter granted to the East India Company, Dec. 31	1600
HOUSE OF STUART:—**James I.**	1603
The Gunpowder Plot discovered, Nov. 5	1605
Translation of the Bible finished	1611
Charles I.	1625
The Petition of Right, June 7	1628
Hampden refuses to pay ship-money	1636
The Long Parliament meets, Nov. 3	1640
Strafford beheaded, May 12; the Irish Rebellion	1641
The Civil Wars begin; Charles sets up his standard at Nottingham, Aug. 22	1642
Battle of Naseby, June 14	1645
Second Civil War; battle of Preston, Aug. 17	1648
Charles I. beheaded, Jan. 30	1649
The Commonwealth	1649
Oliver Cromwell's campaigns in Ireland	1649—1650
War with Scotland; battle of Dunbar, Sept. 3	1650

	A.D.
Battle of Worcester, Sept. 3	1651
War with the Dutch	1652–1654
Cromwell turns out the Parliament, April 20	1653
The **Protectorate** :—**Oliver Cromwell**, Dec. 16	1653
Jamaica taken	1655
Richard Cromwell	1658
The Long Parliament reassembles	1659
The Convention meets, April 25; Restoration of King **Charles II.**	1660
The Plague Year	1665
The Great Fire of London	1666
The Dutch burn the ships at Chatham	1667
Secret Treaty of Dover	1670
Habeas Corpus Act	1679
James II.	1685
The Western Rebellion; battle of Sedgemoor, July 6	1685
Trial of the Seven Bishops, June 29 & 30; landing of the Prince of Orange, Nov. 5; flight of James from Whitehall, Dec. 11; he leaves England, Dec. 23	1688
The Declaration of Right; the Convention bestows the crown upon **William and Mary**, Feb. 13	1689
The Toleration Act; the **Bill of Rights**	1689
Battle of the Boyne, July 1	1690
Surrender of Limerick, Oct. 3	1691
National Debt begins	1693
Bank of England founded, July 27; death of **Mary**, Dec. 28; **William III.**	1694
Act of Settlement	1701
Anne	1702
Gibraltar taken, July 24; battle of Blenheim, Aug. 2	1704
Union with Scotland, May 1	1707
Peace of Utrecht	1713
House of Hanover :—**George I.**	1714
Jacobite Rebellion	1715–1716
Septennial Act	1716
George II.	1727

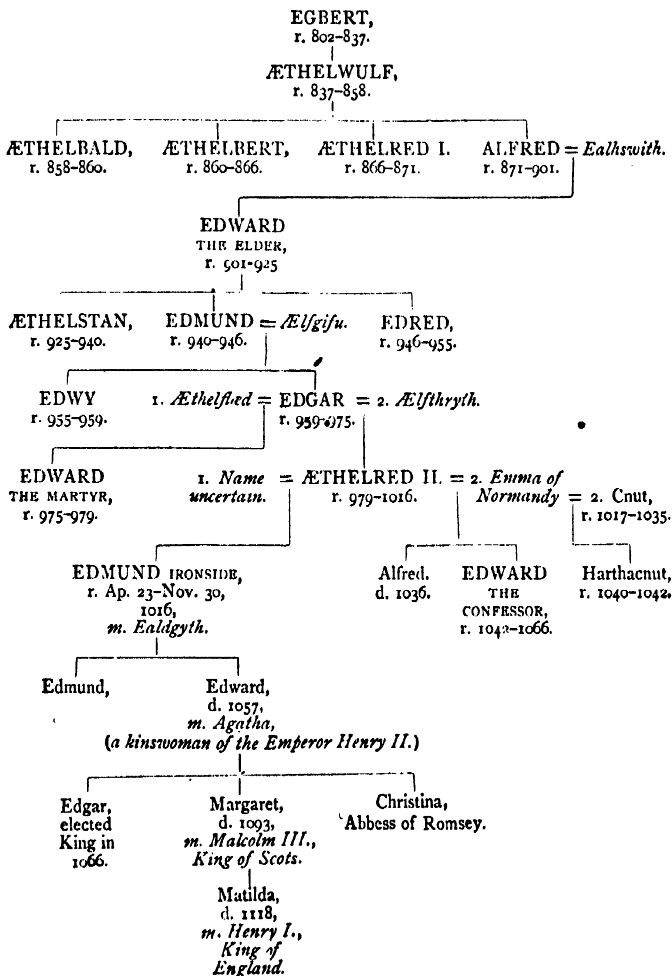
	A.D.
Battle of Dettingen	1743
Second Jacobite Rebellion	1745—1746
Battle of Culloden, April 16	1746
Beginning of the British dominion in India; battle of Plassy, June 23	1757
Canada won	1760
George III.	1760
The North-American colonies declare their independence, July 4	1776
War of the French Revolution begins	1793
Battle of the Nile, Aug. 1	1798
Union with Ireland, Jan. 1	1801
Peace of Amiens	1802
War with France renewed	1803
Battle of Trafalgar, Oct. 21	1805
Pitt dies, Jan. 23; Berlin Decree issued, Nov. 21	1806
The Peninsular War	1808—1814
The **Regency**	1811
Battle of Waterloo, June 18	1815
George IV.	1820
Catholic Emancipation Act, April 13	1829
William IV.	1830
Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened	1830
The Reform Bill, June 7	1832
Abolition of Slavery, Aug. 28	1833
Victoria	1837
Abandonment of the protective duties upon corn	1846
The Crimean War; battle of the Alma, Sept. 20	1854
The Indian Mutiny	1857—1858
Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick formed into one Dominion under the name of Canada	1867
The Reform Bill, Aug. 15	1867
The Irish Church disestablished	1869
Elementary Education Act, Aug. 9	1870
Ballot Bill	1872
The Queen takes the title of **Empress of India,** Jan. 1	1877

GENEALOGICAL TABLES.

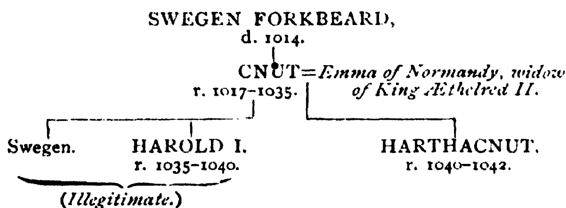
(These Tables, being intended only to illustrate historical points mentioned in the text, are not to be taken as full genealogies.)

KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF CERDIC, FROM EGBERT.

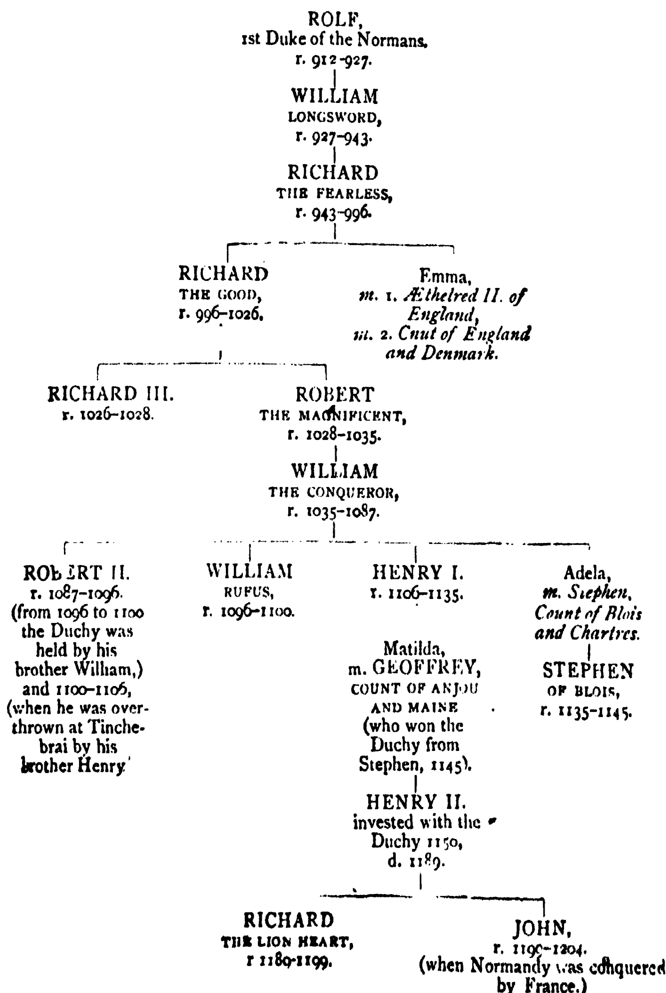
(Pp. 19–40, 62.)



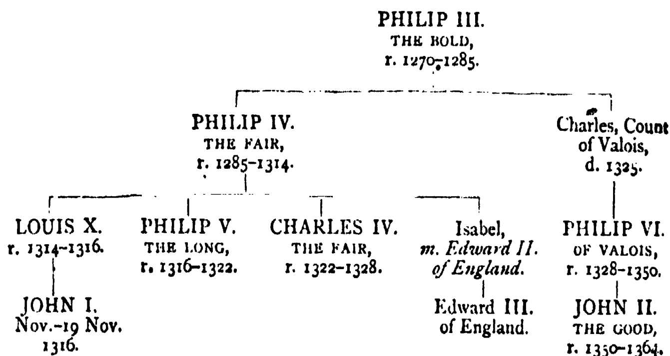
THE DANISH KINGS. (Pp. 32–35.)



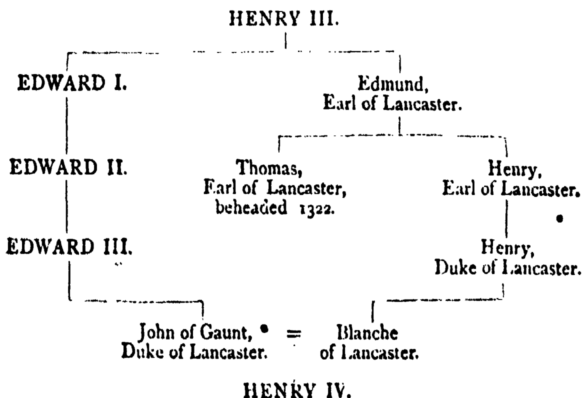
DUKES OF THE NORMANS. (Pp. 25, 32, 37–80.)



Claim of EDWARD III. to the French Crown. (P. 105.)



Descent of HENRY IV. (P. 118.)



HOUSE OF YORK.

EDWARD

Lionel, Duke of Clarence.

Philippa, *m. Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.*

Roger Mortimer, Earl of March.

Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, d. 1424.

Anne Morti

Richard Duke of slain at

EDWARD IV.

Edmund, Earl of Rutland, slain at Wakefield, 1460.

George, Duke of Clarence, *m. Isabel Neville.*

EDWARD V.

Richard, Duke of York.

Elizabeth, *m. HENRY VII.*

Katharine, *m. Sir William Courtenay.*

Henry Courtenay, Marquess of Exeter, beheaded 1538.

Edward Courtenay, Earl of Devon, d. 1556.

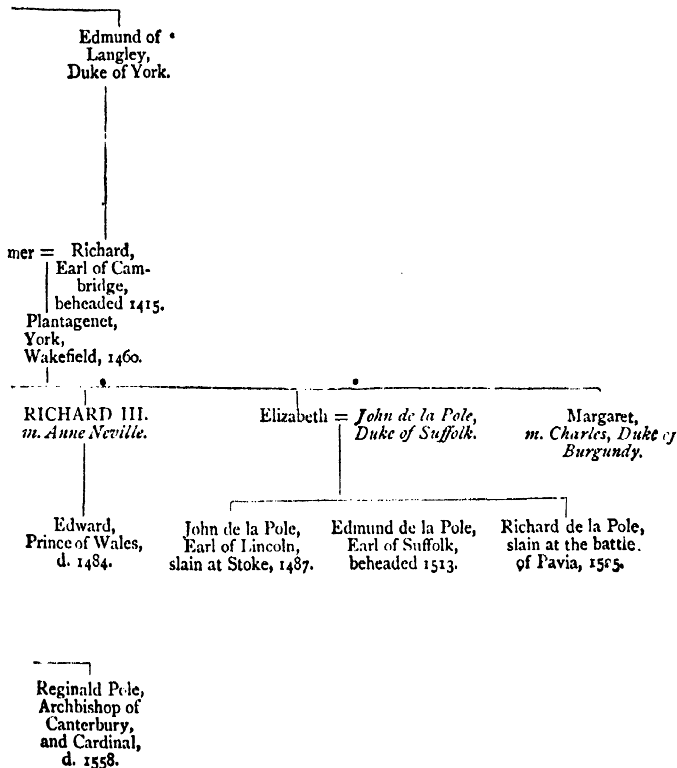
Edward, Earl of Warwick, beheaded 1499.

Margaret, Countess of Salisbury, beheaded 1541, *m. Sir Richard Pole.*

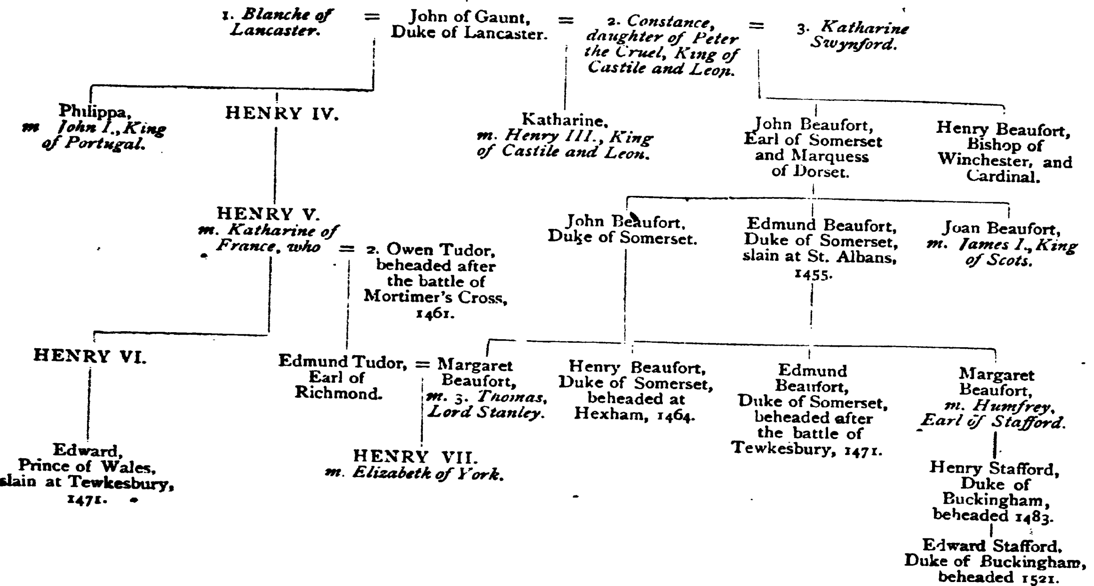
Henry Pole, Lord Montagu, beheaded 1538.

(Pp. 122, 135-147, 152, 165, 176.)

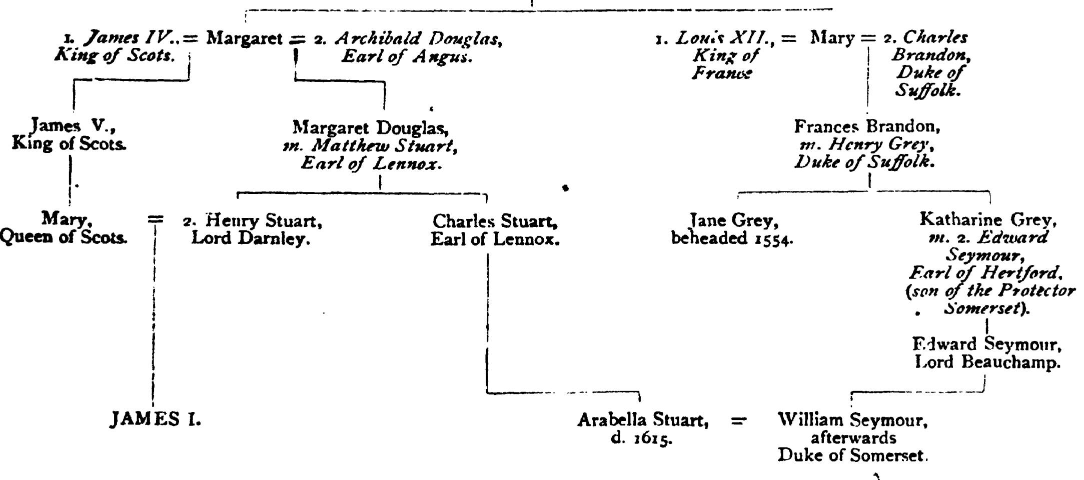
III.



Reginald Pole, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Cardinal, d. 1558.

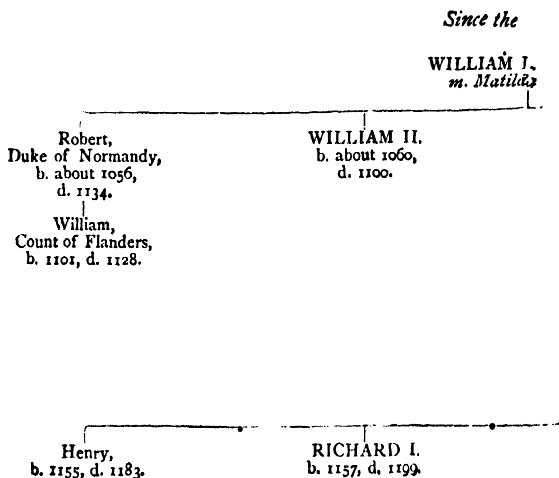

HOUSE OF LANCASTER. (Pp. 118, 131, 135, 146, 159.)
EDWARD III.
1. Blanche of Lancaster.
=
John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.
=
2. Constance, daughter of Peter the Cruel, King of Castile and Leon.
=
3. Katharine Swynford.
Philippa, m John I., King of Portugal.
HENRY IV.
Katharine, m. Henry III., King of Castile and Leon.
John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset and Marquess of Dorset.
Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, and Cardinal.
HENRY V. m. Katharine of France, who
=
2. Owen Tudor, beheaded after the battle of Mortimer's Cross, 1461.
John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset.
Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, slain at St. Albans, 1455.
Joan Beaufort, m. James I., King of Scots.
HENRY VI.
Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond.
=
Margaret Beaufort, m. 3. Thomas, Lord Stanley.
Henry Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, beheaded at Hexham, 1464.
Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, beheaded after the battle of Tewkesbury, 1471.
Margaret Beaufort, m. Humfrey, Earl of Stafford.
Edward, Prince of Wales, slain at Tewkesbury, 1471.
HENRY VII. m. Elizabeth of York.
Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, beheaded 1483.
Edward Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, beheaded 1521.

DESCENDANTS OF THE DAUGHTERS OF HENRY VII. (Pp. 155, 159, 168, 172, 184, 193, 194.)



THE SOVEREIGNS

Since the



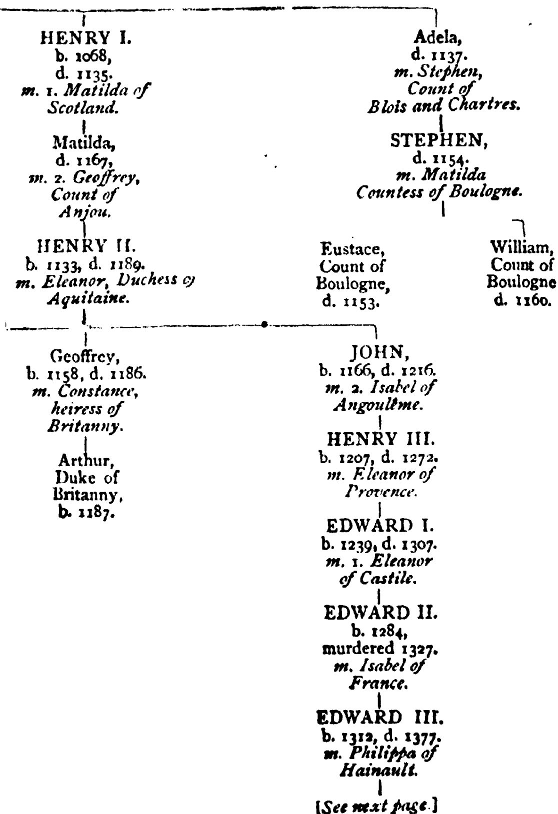
Henry,
b. 1155, d. 1183.

RICHARD I.
b. 1157, d. 1199.

OF ENGLAND.

Norman Conquest,

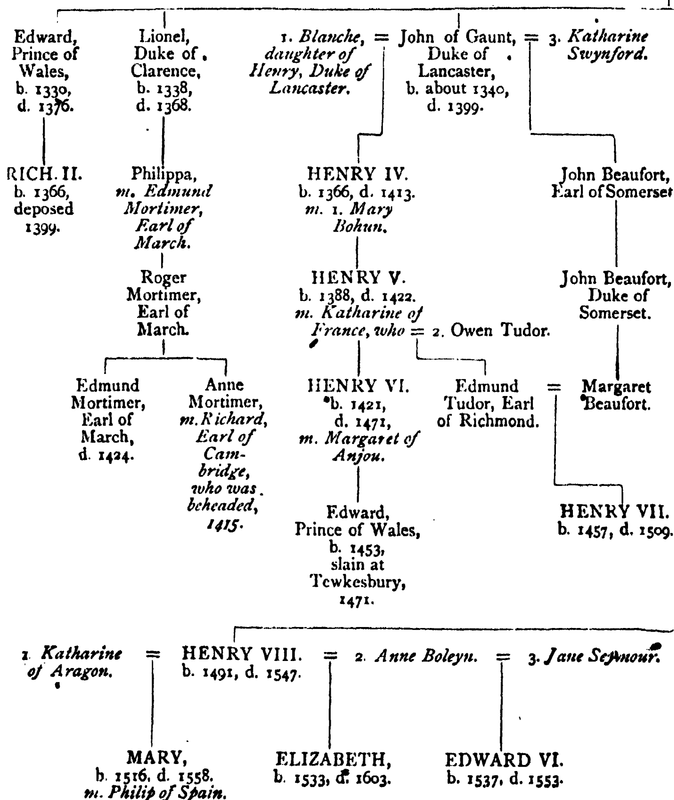
b. about 1027, d. 1087.
of Flanders.



[*See next page.*]

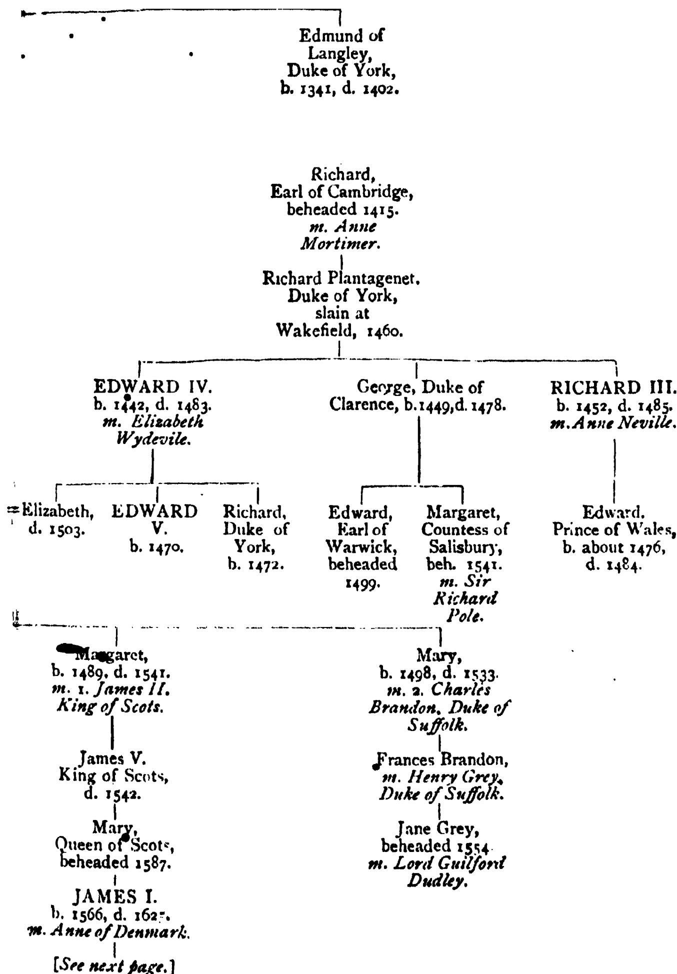
THE SOVEREIGNS

EDWARD

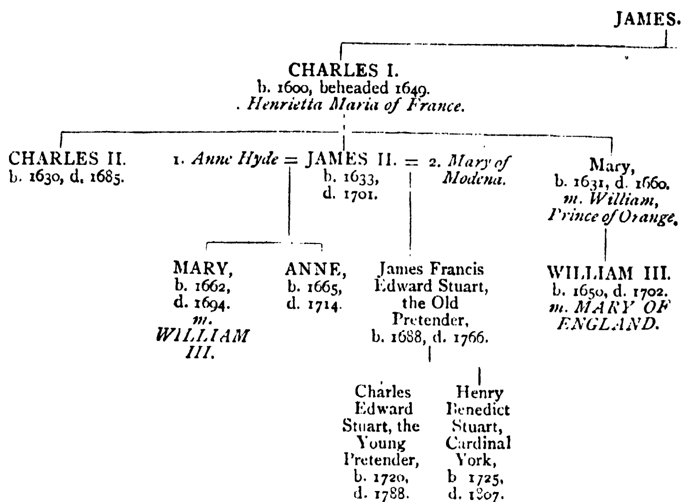


OF ENGLAND—continued.

III.



THE SOVEREIGNS



OF ENGLAND—continued.

I.

Elizabeth,
b. 1596, d. 1662.
m. Frederick,
Elector Palatine.

Sophia,
d. 1714.
m. Ernest Augustus,
Elector of Hanover.

GEORGE I.
b. 1660, d 1727.
m. Sophia Dorothea
of Zell.

GEORGE II.
b. 1683, d. 1760.
m. Caroline of
Brandenburg-
Anspach.

Frederick,
Prince of Wales,
b. 1707, d. 1751.

GEORGE III.
b. 1738, d. 1820.
m. Charlotte of
Mecklenburg-
Strelitz.

GEORGE IV.
b. 1762, d. 1830.
m. Caroline of
Brunswick
Wolfenbüttel.

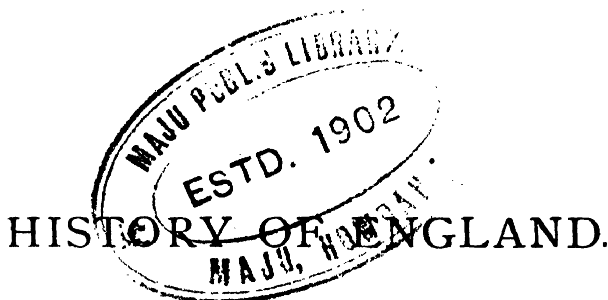
Charlotte,
b. 1796, d. 1817

WILLIAM IV.
b. 1765, d. 1837.

Edward,
Duke of Kent,
b 1767, d. 1820.

VICTORIA,
b. 1819.
m Prince Albert of
Saxe-Coburg and
Gotha.

Ernest Augustus
King of Hanover,
b. 1771, d. 1851.



HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

BRITAIN BEFORE THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

The Britons; Ireland and Scotland (1)—*the Roman Conquest; invasion of Cæsar; Cassivelaunus; description of the Britons* (2)—*Claudius; Caractacus* (3)—*the Isle of Mona; Boadicea* (4)—*Roman Britain; Agricola; the Roman Wall; Hadrian; Severus* (5)—*the British Church; St. Alban* (6).

1. **The British Isles.**—*England*, the southern part of the *Isle of Britain*, has its name from the *Angles* or *English*, a Teutonic people who, with other kindred tribes, came over from the mainland of Europe, and won themselves a new home in Britain. They found the land already occupied by a Celtic-speaking people, the *Britons*, who still exist under the name of *Welsh*. The Celts and the Teutons are both branches of the great *Aryan* family of mankind, to which nearly all the nations of Europe belong; and the earliest known Aryan inhabitants of Britain belonged to the Celtic branch; but it is believed that before them the land was overspread by a people who were not Aryans, and whom the Celts drove into the west of the island. There are however no written records of the coming of the Celts, or of the races which preceded them; so that our opinions are mainly formed upon the evidence afforded by bones, weapons,

and tools found in the caves which served the unknown men of old for dwelling or burial-places, and in the tombs called *cromlechs*, which still remain in many parts of Britain. In the island of *Ireland*, formerly called *Ierne* and *Scotia*, there was another Celtic people, known as the *Scots*, who, late in the fifth century, made a settlement in *Caledonia* or North Britain, which from them came to be called *Scotland.* Two Celtic languages are still spoken in the British Isles. These are the *Gaelic*, dialects of which survive in parts of Ireland, in the Isle of Man, and in the Western Highlands of Scotland; and the *Cymric* or Welsh tongue, which is spoken in Wales.

2. **The Roman Conquest. C. Julius Cæsar.**—At the time when our historical knowledge of the Britons begins, the *Romans* were the most powerful nation of the world: and it was their great general, *Caius Julius Cæsar*, who first attempted to explore Britain, which was still scarcely known except to those merchants who traded with the tribes on the sea-coast. Cæsar was then governor of *Gaul*, the land between the Pyrenees and the Rhine, the greater part of which he had himself conquered. Finding that his enemies in Gaul had often received help from Britain, he determined to invade the island. He accordingly came over with two legions in August, B.C. 55, landing either at Walmer or Deal, after a sharp fight with the natives. The next year he came again, when he was opposed by a league of tribes under a chief called *Cassivelaunus*, whose fortified town or camp the Romans assaulted and took; but neither time did Cæsar make any lasting conquest, or leave any troops behind him. He only saw the south-eastern part of the island; the population, he tells us, was large, and the buildings and cattle numerous. Corn seems to have been plentiful about his camp in Kent, the Kentish people being, according to him, the most civilized in Britain. The Britons employed both cavalry and chariots in war, and were remarkable for

their skill in driving, and the activity with which they leaped down to fight on foot and sprang back again to their cars. They were in the habit of staining themselves blue with woad, to look more terrible in battle. Little is known of their religion; but they had among them a class of sorcerers and priests called *Druids*, who offered human sacrifices to the gods.

3. **Claudius.**—As Roman civilization spread in Northern Gaul, and commerce increased along the coast, Britain became much better known to the world, and carried on a larger trade. Its exports are said to have comprised corn and cattle, tin, lead, iron, gold and silver, besides skins, slaves, and hunting dogs. Pearls too were found, but of a poor kind. It was not however till the time of the Emperor *Claudius*, who himself came over A.D. 43, that the Romans began really to conquer Britain. One who struggled the hardest against the invaders was *Carádoc*, called by the Romans *Caractacus*, who at the head, first of his own people in the east and midland, and then of the *Silurians*, a people dwelling west of the Severn, long maintained the contest. He was at last taken and sent prisoner to Rome, where the Emperor, struck by his gallant speech and bearing, instead of putting him to death, the usual fate of a captive, gave him and his family their lives. It is told of Caradoc, that when, after his release, he walked through the stately streets of Rome, he asked bitterly why men thus magnificently lodged should covet the poor cottages of the Britons.

4. **Boadicea.**—In the year 61, *Suetonius Paulinus*, the Roman governor in Britain, attacked the Isle of *Mona* (now *Anglesey*), the refuge of those who stood out against the Roman power. A strong force of warriors defended the shore; the Druids stood around, calling down the wrath of Heaven upon the invaders; women with streaming hair and torches in their hands rushed wildly to and fro. For a moment the Romans quailed with superstitious terror; but, recalling their courage, they advanced; the defenders of the isle were

overwhelmed, and the sacred groves, where captives had been offered in sacrifice, were destroyed. Meanwhile the subject Britons broke out into revolt under the leadership of *Boadicea*, widow of a King of the *Icenians*, a tribe dwelling in what are now Norfolk and Suffolk. This people had been cruelly oppressed by the Roman officers; Boadicea herself had been scourged, and her two daughters subjected to brutal outrage. Breathing vengeance, the Icenians rose in arms, stirring up the neighbouring tribes to join in the revolt; while Boadicea, spear in hand, her yellow hair flowing below her waist, harangued her forces with fiery eloquence. The colony of *Camulodunum* (Colchester) was stormed, and the colonists slaughtered by the insurgents. In like manner were massacred the inhabitants of the Roman towns of *Verulamium* (near St. Albans) and *Londinium* (London), which was already a great trading place. In modern times there have been found, below the soil of London, charred remains of wooden buildings, supposed to be those of the ancient Londinium, which was probably burned down by the Britons. So far they carried all before them, but on the return of Suetonius, they were routed with great slaughter. Boadicea died soon after—a natural death, as some say; according to others, she poisoned herself in despair.

5. **Roman Britain.**—The Roman dominion in Britain was gradually strengthened and increased. From the year 78 to 84 the governor of the *province*, the territory subject to Rome, was *Cnæus Julius Agricola*. He extended the Roman dominions to the Firths of Forth and Clyde, securing the frontier by a chain of forts, while a second line of defence was formed by similar forts from the Tyne to the Solway. The wild northern tribes called *Caledonians* were never subdued, although Agricola defeated them in a battle on the Highland border. His fleet sailed along the northern coast and took possession of the Orkneys. Agricola was a wise

and good man, who ruled the province well, checking the extortions of the Roman officials, and encouraging the natives to build temples, courts of justice, and good dwelling-houses. Under his influence the chieftains' sons learned to speak Latin, wore the *toga* or gown which was the distinctive dress of the Romans, and adopted the ways and manners of their conquerors. The greater part of Britain remained subject to Rome for more than three hundred years; and its history during that time belongs to that of the Roman Empire generally. Great cities grew up, connected by a network of excellent roads, which crossed the country like our railway lines. Agriculture so throve that Britain became one of the chief corn-exporting countries of the Empire; the mines were diligently worked; tin was sought in Cornwall, lead in Derbyshire and Somersetshire—to use the names of later times—and iron in Sussex, Northumberland, and the Forest of Dean. But though the Romans gave the country government and a superficial civilization, they never made it thoroughly Roman. Latin probably was spoken by the higher classes in the towns, but in the country the native dialects held their ground. The Romans left their mark on the land more than on the people. Parts of their roads, often called *streets*—from the Latin *strata*, a paved way—remain at this day. *Chester*, *cester*, *caster*, a word which enters into the names of many existing towns—as Winchester, Leicester, Doncaster—has come down from the Latin *castra*, camp or fortified place. We still may see remains of the strong city walls and other structures—for Roman builders made their work to last—and of the pleasant *villas*, the country-houses of the wealthy folk. Altars dedicated to the gods, tombstones bearing the names of the dead, inscriptions cut by the soldiers employed on public works, all tell us of the mighty people who once bore rule in this land. Most famous are the remains of the great military works in the North, where the fortifica-

tions had to be constantly strengthened against the restless Caledonians. In the year 120 the Emperor *Hadrian* visited Britain, and had the forts between the Tyne and the Solway connected by a ditch and earthen rampart. A similar dyke was raised along Agricola's northern line, about 139, in the reign of the Emperor *Antoninus Pius*. Still the wild northern tribes gave trouble, and about 208 the Emperor *Severus* not only drove them out of the province, but led an expedition into their country, returning to die in 211 at *Eboracum*, now called *York*, which was then the chief city of Britain. Severus seems to have strengthened Hadrian's wall with a second line of earthworks. Finally, the great stone wall along the same line, of which fragments still remain, was made about the end of the fourth or beginning of the fifth century.

6. **The British Church.**—The Christian faith made its way in Britain as in other parts of the Roman Empire, but how or when it was introduced is not known. Its first martyr is said to have been *St. Alban*, who was put to death for his faith, about 304, near Verulamium. There, in the eighth century, an English King, *Offa*, founded in his honour an abbey, round which grew up the town bearing the martyr's name.

CHAPTER II.

THE ENGLISH IN BRITAIN.

Decline of the Roman power; the Picts and Scots; the Teutonic tribes; Theodosius; Britain left to itself; the English Conquest (1)—*kingdom of Kent; legend of Hengest and Horsa; kingdom of Sussex; kingdom of Wessex; Arthur; Essex and Middlesex; kingdom of East Anglia; of Northumberland; of the Mercians; the Bretwalda* (2)—*the British kingdoms* (3)—*religion* (4)—*king and people; ætheling, earl, churl, thane, and slave* (5)—*government; the Witan; township, hundred, and shire* (6).

1. **The English Conquest.**—In the fourth century, when the power of Rome was going down, the free tribes of the north—the *Picts*, as the Caledonians were now called, and their allies the *Scots*—began to pour into Roman Britain, while other enemies attacked the island by sea. These latter were *Teutonic* tribes, speaking dialects of the *Low-Dutch* or *Low-German* tongue, who came from the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser in North-Germany. First among these tribes we hear of the *Saxons*, fierce sea-rovers, who were already known and dreaded on the coast of Gaul. *Theodosius*, a celebrated general who in 367 was sent by the Emperor *Valentinian* to the rescue of Britain, drove the Picts and Scots back beyond the northern ramparts, and chased the Saxons from the coasts. But these successes gave only a temporary respite, and the Empire everywhere grew weaker, till at last, early in the fifth century, in the reign of the Emperor *Honorius*, the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain, and the natives were left to resist their many enemies as they best might. Gildas, a British monk of the next century, tells of perpetual inroads of Scots and Picts, of appeals to the Romans for aid :—"The barbarians drive us to the sea, the sea drives us back to the barbarians :—" so ran the supplication. For a while the Britons beat off their foes ; but unused to freedom, they knew not how to govern themselves, and the land was given over to disorder and strife. Nor were the Picts and Scots their worst enemies. In the course of the fifth and sixth centuries, the greater part of the country was conquered by the Teutonic invaders, the founders of the English nation, among whom three tribes stand out above the rest, the *Angles*, *Saxons*, and *Jutes*. These grew into one people under the name of *Anglo-Saxons*, or more commonly of *Angles* or *English ;* and the part of Britain they dwelled in came to be called *England*. They were fierce heathen, who slew or

enslaved those whom they overcame, and drove the rest into the western part of the island. Never having been under the power of Rome, nor taught to reverence her name, they cared nothing for her arts, language, or laws; they kept their own speech and faith, their own laws and institutions, and remained untouched by Roman or British influences. They spoke of the Britons as *Welsh*, that is, strangers; while the Britons called them all *Saxons;* and to this day the descendants of the Celts in Wales, Ireland, and the Scottish Highlands, term a man of English speech and race a "Saxon."

2. **The English Kingdoms.** — According to ancient tradition, the first Teutonic Kingdom in this island was that of *Kent*, which has always kept its British name. *Gwrtheyrn* or *Vortigern*, a native prince, was ill-advised enough to invite two Jutish chiefs, the brothers *Hengest* and *Horsa*, to serve against the Picts. The strangers, coming over with their followers in three *keels* or ships, landed in 449 at Ebbsfleet in Thanet, defeated the Picts, and then, thinking they might as well conquer for themselves, sent over for their countrymen in North Germany, telling them how good the land was and how weak were its people. The Britons nevertheless had a long struggle with them; the first battle recorded in the ancient annals known as the English Chronicle took place at Aylesford, and cost the life of Horsa; but the Jutish adventurers at last got the better, founding the Kingdoms of *East* and *West Kent*. The next Teutonic Kingdom was that of the *South-Saxons* or *Sussex*, founded by *Ælle*, who in 477 landed near the city of *Regnum*, since called, after his son Cissa, *Cissanceaster* (now Chichester). Near where Pevensey now is, there stood the walled town of *Anderida*, one of the fortresses which guarded the coast. In those days the sea flowed to the rising ground on which Anderida was placed, and ships

could ride where now is a great bank of shingle. This town Ælle and Cissa took in 491, and a brief entry in the Chronicle tells us that they "slew all that dwelled therein, nor was there a Briton left there any more." In 495 there came another body of Saxons, who, landing in what is now called Hampshire, founded the Kingdom of the *West-Saxons* or *Wessex*. Their leaders were *Cerdic* and his son *Cynric*, two *Ealdormen*, that is, elders or chiefs, a title which, in the form of "alderman," is still in use. About the year 520, the Britons, led, according to tradition, by a prince named *Arthur*, who has become famous through the romances and poems about him, defeated the West-Saxons at *Badbury* in Dorset, and checked for a whole generation their advance westwards. But later on, the West-Saxons pushed their way, and a victory won by their King *Ceawlin* in 577 at Deorham in Gloucestershire, threw into their hands the Roman towns of Gloucester, Cirencester, and Bath. In the district about Colchester and London were the *East-Saxons* and *Middle-Saxons*, as the names Essex and Middlesex still testify. North of the Thames the land was mainly occupied by the Angles. On the east coast, between the fens and the sea, was the Kingdom of *East-Anglia*, divided into the *North-folk* and *South-folk* (Norfolk and Suffolk). Between the Humber and the Forth lay *Bernicia* and *Deira*, and these, when united under one ruler, formed the Kingdom of *Northumberland*. The first King of the Bernician Angles was *Ida*, who began his reign in 547, and reared his royal fortress of Bamburgh on a rock overlooking the sea. Ida's grandson *Æthelfrith*, who ruled over all Northumberland, early in the seventh century defeated the Welsh at Chester with great slaughter. Before the fight began, the heathen King marked a band of Welsh priests and monks,* many of them from the great monastery of Bangor-Iscoed, who had come to pray for the success of their country-

men. "If they cry to their God against us," quoth he, "they fight against us, albeit they bear not arms," and he caused his men to fall on and slay them. For nearly three hundred years from that time Chester seems to have lain in ruins, though its Roman walls were left standing. The latest of the English kingdoms was that of *Mercia*. which grew out of a number of small Anglian settlements. The original Mercians —the men, that is, on the *march* or border—were the settlers about the head-waters of the Trent, in the borderland between the English and the Welsh. In time Mercia extended its power and name from the Humber to the Thames and the Lower Avon, thereby depriving the West-Saxons of some of their conquests. The seven chief kingdoms, *Kent*, *Sussex*, *Wessex*, *Essex*, *Northumberland*, *East-Anglia*, and *Mercia*, which stand out above the lesser kingdoms and states, are sometimes called by modern authors the *Heptarchy*, that is, the Government of Seven; but the name is misleading, as the country was never parcelled out into seven states with settled boundaries. They were for ever fighting, not only with the Welsh, but among each other, and sometimes one prevailed and sometimes another. At times some one king gained a certain authority over his fellows, in which case he is termed in the Chronicle a *Bretwalda*, or "Wielder of Britain."

3. **The British or Welsh Kingdoms.**—In the middle of the sixth century it seemed as if the island as far as the Firths was to be divided lengthways between the Welsh in the west and the English in the east. But by the West-Saxon conquests the Britons of *West-Wales* or *Cornwall*—that is, the present Cornwall together with Devon and great part of Somerset—were cut off from their brethren of *North-Wales*, the remnant of which is still called Wales. The conquests of Æthelfrith and his successors in like manner cut off the Britons of Wales from those beyond Chester.



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Strathclyde, the territory of the northern British, which extended to the Firth of Clyde, long remained unsubdued. *Elmet*, the district round Leeds, was also an independent Welsh kingdom till the seventh century, when it was conquered by the Northumbrian King *Edwin*.

4. **Religion.**—The faith of the English was much the same as that of the Teutonic tribes generally—heathenism, though not of a degraded form. *Woden*, called by the Danes *Odin*, was their chief god, the giver of valour and victory; after him came *Thunor*, that is, Thunder, better known by his Danish name of *Thor*, the ruler of the sky; and many other gods and goddesses. The names of the days of the week, as *Wednesday*, Woden's day, *Thursday*, Thor's day, still preserve the memory of some of these deities. The name of the goddess *Eostre* (Easter), worshipped in the month of April, has passed to the Christian Feast of the Resurrection. *Wyrd*, that is, Fate, lives on in the word "weird," which in northern tales and ballads signifies a doom or curse inflicted by supernatural power. There was also a belief in spirits who haunted the wilds and the waters, and in *elves* or fairies.

5. **King and People.**—The English royal houses claimed descent from the god Woden; but, though the King was taken from the kingly line, he was nevertheless elected; and a child, or a man thought incompetent, would be passed over in favour of a kinsman better fitted for the office. In early times the King was not looked upon as lord of the soil, but as leader of the people; and thus in after days, when a single King ruled over all the English states, his usual title was "King of the English," not King of England. His sons and brothers were called *Æthelings*, a title originally given to nobles generally, but afterwards restricted to members of the royal house. From the seventh century onwards, we find part of the land held by individuals or small communities, and part—called *folkland* or public land—belonging to the State.

When the conquering English settled down, they were not numerous enough to occupy all the territory they had won, and thus there remained unallotted land at the disposal of the tribe or State. The King had his private estates like other people, and as he could, though at first only with the consent of his council, make grants of the folkland, it came to be looked on as the property of the Crown. Landowners were under a threefold obligation—to furnish men to serve in the *fyrd* or militia, and to keep up the fortifications and bridges. Freemen—for there were men who were "unfree"—were divided into two great classes, known as *Earls* and *Churls*, terms best expressed by the words "gentle and simple;" and the man who had no land of his own was constrained by custom, and, in later days, by law, to take some landed man for his "lord" or master, to be his surety and protector. Nowadays "my lord" is only a respectful manner of addressing a nobleman or a judge; but of old, when one man called another "his lord," it meant that he owed him service and looked to him for protection. Every king or other great man had his own followers, called *thegns* (now spelled *thanes*), who devoted themselves to his service in peace and war. As it was both honourable and profitable to serve a king, who could provide for his followers by grants of folkland, the thanes grew into a class of gentry and nobles, which supplanted the older nobility, the "earls"; and at last the name of thane was given to all who owned a certain quantity of land. For the defence of the country every freeman was bound to serve in the *fyrd*. Slaves were most numerous along the Welsh border, where many Welshmen were taken prisoners and made bondsmen. But men might become slaves in other ways than being captured in war. They might be driven by poverty to sell themselves, or be sold when children by their parents, or be enslaved by law because they could not pay their debts or the fines they

had incurred by some offence; or they might be born in slavery.

6. **Government.**—The King was not *absolute* (that is, he did not rule wholly according to his own will), but was bound to observe the laws and customs of his people. He was moreover guided by a council or assembly, called the *Witena-gemót*, that is, the Meeting of the Wise, its members being the *Witan*, the Wise Men. It is probable that all freemen might take part in the Meeting, but if so, when the kingdoms grew fewer in number, and larger in extent, the mass of the people soon ceased to attend, because they had not the time or could not travel the distance. So the Meeting shrank on ordinary occasions into something more like our House of Lords, attended only by the great men—the *Ealdormen*, who were something like Viceroys or Lords-Lieutenant; the King's thanes; and, after the country became Christian, by the Bishops and Abbots. Sometimes, on great occasions, large bodies of people were present; and in the eleventh century we hear of the citizens of London taking part in Meetings for the election of a King. The powers of the Witan were large; they elected the King; and they and he together made laws and treaties, and appointed or removed the officers of the State. In small matters the people governed themselves. The *township* had its own little meeting, still continued in part under the name of "parish vestry," for making its by-laws and settling its affairs. The township was sometimes independent, that is to say, the freemen owned the land; sometimes it was dependent on a lord, whose tenants the townsmen were. So the *hundred*, called in some parts of the country the *wapentake*, a union of townships, had a court and meeting for trying criminals and settling disputes; and so too the *shire*, a cluster of hundreds, had its court and meeting, presided over by the Ealdorman, the Sheriff (that is, *shire-reeve*, magistrate of the shire), and the Bishop.

CHAPTER III.

CONVERSION OF THE ENGLISH TO CHRISTIANITY.

The conversion of Kent (1)—*the conversion of the North* (2)—*the Scottish mission* (3)—*the Synod of Whitby* (4)—*the Church of England* (5).

1. **Conversion of Kent.**—The heathen English had learned nothing from the Christian Welsh, and their conversion was first undertaken by a mission from Rome, which was still considered the greatest city of the Western world, and whose Bishop, commonly called *Pope*, that is, Father, was held to be chief of all Bishops. *Gregory the Great*, who was made Pope in 590, was said to have become interested in the English from seeing some beautiful fair-skinned and long-haired boys from Deira standing in the market at Rome for sale as slaves. Well were they called *Angles*, he said, for they had the faces of *angels*; and sorrowing that those who were so fair of form should be in heathen darkness, he at once conceived a wish for the conversion of the English. So after he had become Pope, he sent to Britain a band of priests and monks having at their head *Augustine*, afterwards styled Saint, who landed in 597 at Ebbsfleet. *Æthelbert, King of Kent*, who was the most powerful prince in Southern England, had married *Bertha*, daughter of Charibert, one of the Frankish kings in Northern Gaul. The Franks, a Teutonic people, were Christians; and Æthelbert, though himself a heathen, had agreed to allow his wife free exercise of her religion. He now consented to listen to Augustine and his companions. The meeting took place in the Isle

of Thanet, and, by Æthelbert's wish, in the open air, because spells and charms, which he feared the strangers might use, were supposed to have less power out of doors. After hearing what they had to say, he gave them a house in the royal city of Canterbury, where they worshipped in the little Roman church of Saint Martin, in which Bertha was wont to pray. Ere long they converted Æthelbert himself, whose example was freely followed by large numbers. Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury, and his cathedral church of the Saviour, which has been many times rebuilt, still remains the *metropolitan* or mother church of England. In 604 he ordained two Bishops, of whom one had his see at Rochester, and the other at London, where King Æthelbert built for him the church of St. Paul. The Church services, introduced by the missionaries, were in Latin, which, though an unknown tongue to the English, was still the literary and official language in other parts of Western Christendom.

2. **Conversion of the North.** — *Eadwine*, or as we now write the name, *Edwin*, of Deira, ascended the Northumbrian throne in 617, and became the greatest King in Britain. On the northern frontier of his dominions his name lives in that of *Edinburgh*, which he founded as a fortress. So strong and good was his government that, as the popular saying went, "a woman with her babe might walk unharmed through the land from sea to sea;" and it was told how, for the benefit of the thirsty wayfarer, he had brass cups hung up by the water-springs near the roads, and no man durst steal them. His wife *Æthelburh*, daughter of Æthelbert of Kent, was a Christian; and to the Bishop *Paulinus*, whom she brought with her, the conversion of her husband was due. When the King was himself convinced, he gathered his Witan to debate whether they also should adopt Christianity. The assembled nobles

decided for the new creed, and the heathen High-Priest *Coifi* himself undertook to profane the idol temple of Godmanham. Riding up, he hurled a spear into it, and bade his followers set it on fire. The Minster of York, at first a simple wooden church, was founded by Edwin, who was there baptized in 627. But after Edwin in 633 had fallen fighting against the heathen *Penda*, King of the Mercians, and the Welsh King *Cadwalla*, Paulinus fled with the widowed Queen to Kent, and Northumbrian Christianity seemed about to perish, when a deliverer arose in *Oswald*, since styled Saint, a son of Æthelfrith. At a place called Heavenfield, near Hexham, Oswald set up a wooden cross—the first Christian sign reared in Bernicia—and there, with his little army, knelt and prayed for aid. The Welsh King fell in the ensuing fight, and thenceforward Oswald reigned over Northumberland till in 642 he too fell in battle with Penda.

3. **The Scottish Mission.**—The Scots of Ireland had been converted to Christianity in the fifth century, chiefly, as tradition says, by the famous missionary *St. Patrick*, who was most probably born near Dumbarton. Christianity quickly took root and flourished in Ireland; learning was there cultivated at a time when it had almost died out elsewhere; foreigners resorted to the Irish schools, and Irish missionaries went out to foreign lands. In the sixth century, *St. Columba*, an Irishman, had founded the renowned monastery of *Iona*, and had converted the Picts of the Highlands. King Oswald, having in his youth been baptized by the Scots of Britain, applied to them for a Bishop for his people. *Aidan*, a monk of Iona, was sent, and fixed his episcopal see in *Lindisfarn*, since called *Holy Island*. Through his own and his countrymen's labours, the Northumbrians soon became Christians; but the faith of the common people was often mixed with heathenism. In time of pestilence they had recourse to their heathen

charms and amulets, and many looked with no friendly eye on the monks who "took away the old worship." *Cuthbert*, a Northumbrian monk of Melrose who had been a shepherd in his boyhood, devoted himself to teaching and preaching throughout the villages, choosing particularly those among the hills which were so difficult to get at and so rude and wild that other missionaries passed them by. He was made Bishop of Lindisfarn in 685, and was afterwards revered as the great Saint of the North. The other English kingdoms were gradually converted during the seventh century, partly by missionaries from abroad, partly by men trained at Lindisfarn. One of the early Mercian Bishops, *Ceadda*, who had his see at Lichfield, is still remembered under the name of "St. Chad."

4. **The Synod of Whitby.**—The Church of the Irish Scots had ways of its own, notably as to the time for keeping Easter, which differed from those of Rome and the other Western Churches. Hence arose a controversy between the disciples of Iona and those of Rome and Canterbury, till in 664 a synod was held in the monastery of *Streoneshalh* (now *Whitby*), where *Hild*, commonly called *St. Hilda*, a woman of royal race, bore rule as Abbess over both monks and nuns. There the Northumbrian King *Oswy*, after hearing both sides, decided for the Roman customs; upon which the Scottish Bishop of Lindisfarn, *Colman*, with many of his monks, withdrew to Iona. Trifling as the points at issue seem, in its result the Synod was not unimportant, as it brought all the English Churches into agreement.

5. **The Church of England.**—The work of organizing and uniting the English Churches was mainly carried out by *Theodore of Tarsus*, a man of Eastern birth and training, who was sent from Rome in 668 to be Archbishop of Canterbury. Each kingdom as it was converted had become a *diocese*,

that is, a district under the jurisdiction of a Bishop; but Theodore broke up most of these great dioceses into smaller ones, which in his time were all subject to the Archbishop of Canterbury. After Theodore's death an Archbishop was appointed for York; but the *province*, that is, the district under his jurisdiction, has always contained much fewer dioceses than the *province* of Canterbury. At first there were but few churches; in many places there were only crosses, under which the missionaries sent out from the King's court or the monastery preached, said mass, and baptized; but by degrees more churches were built, and priests settled down beside them. The township, or cluster of townships, to which a single priest ministered, was at a later time called his *parish*. During the early period of English history the Church was the chief bond of the nation. Politically, Englishmen were divided into West-Saxons, Mercians, and so forth; it was only as members of one Church that they felt themselves to be fellow-countrymen. Thus the Archbishop of Canterbury, whose word was respected throughout the English land, was, in his way, a greater man than any of the seven or eight Kings who were struggling and fighting around him.

CHAPTER IV.

THE RISE OF WESSEX.

Decline of Northumberland; Ine of Wessex; Offa of Mercia; Egbert, King of the English (1)—*the Danes in England and Ireland* (2)—*Æthelwulf and his sons; the Danish War; Ragnar Lodbrog; St. Edmund* (3)—*Alfred; story of the cakes; taking of the Raven; Alfred in the Danish camp; Treaty of Wedmore; Danish*

settlements (4)—*Alfred's government; his death* (5)—*Edward the Elder; the Lady of the Mercians; Lordship of Britain* (6)—*Rolf the Northman; Normandy* (7).

1. The Rise of Wessex.—For some time Northumberland took the lead among the English states; but towards the close of the seventh century its power began to go down, and Wessex and Mercia then disputed the supremacy of the South. Wessex, which was ruled by the descendants of Cerdic, had grown by constant encroachments on the Welsh; and *Ine*, who became its King in 688, almost completed the conquest of Somerset. He was the founder of *Taunton*, a fortress for the defence of his new frontier, and tradition ascribes to him the building of a stone church for the monastery of Ynysvitrin or Glastonbury, hard by an earlier wooden church of the Britons. Ine's "*dooms*," that is, laws or judgments, are the earliest collection of West-Saxon laws which have come down to us, though there are written Kentish laws older still. Among the Mercian Kings the most famous is *Offa*, who reigned from 757 to 796. He conquered a great part of the Welsh land of *Powys*, including its capital town of Pen-y-wern, now *Shrewsbury*. To guard his new-won land he made a great dyke—"Offa's Dyke"—from the mouth of the Wye to that of the Dee. Wessex rose to power under the great King *Ecgberht* or *Egbert*, who ascended the throne in 802, and brought all the English kingdoms, together with the Welsh both of Cornwall and of what we now call Wales, more or less into subjection. He was King of all the Saxons and Jutes, and Lord of the East-Angles, Mercians, and Northumbrians, whose kings submitted to be his *men*, or in later phrase, his *vassals*, owing him a certain obedience. Egbert, as the chief, though not the only king in the land, was thus able to call himself *King of the English.* But hardly had Wessex established its supremacy when it

found a new foe in the *Scandinavian* pirates, whose increasing ravages troubled Egbert's later years.

2. **The Danes or Northmen.**—The *Scandinavians* or *Northmen* were a Teutonic people, who in course of time formed the Kingdoms of *Sweden*, *Denmark*, and *Norway*. As those who entered England were chiefly *Danes*, English writers commonly speak of the Scandinavians in general by that name. Among these people, as of old among their kinsmen the Angles and Saxons, piracy was an honourable profession, and wealth and fame were won in the roving life of a leader of pirates or *Vikings*. This last word, derived from *vik*, a bay or creek, means "men of the bays," the natural harbours which afforded shelter to their vessels. They were thorough seamen, far ahead of other nations in the building and handling of sea-going vessels. Their practice was to sail up the rivers in their *æscs* or *ash*-wood galleys, to choose some place for a fortified camp, and, obtaining horses in the country, make forays over the land, plundering, burning, and slaying. They spoke a kindred tongue to English, worshipped the same gods as the heathen English had done, and singled out with delight churches, monasteries, and priests for destruction. This was probably not so much from hatred of Christianity as because the religious houses, rich and defenceless, were tempting prey. For the most part the Vikings made little difficulty about forsaking their own religion whenever there was anything to be gained by conversion. Never to flinch in fight, or to shed a tear even for their dearest kinsfolk, and to be as reckless in meeting as in inflicting death, summed up their ideas of honour and duty. The lesser British Isles became favourite Viking haunts, and Scandinavian princes ruled in Man and the Orkneys. Those who harassed Scotland were chiefly Norwegians, to whom in later days the name of Northmen was restricted. No people suffered more than the Irish, who, though in many respects

more civilized than their neighbours, were split into tribes and clans too much at variance with each other to make common cause against their better disciplined and armed invaders. Such order and civilization as Ireland had attained to died out in the course of the long struggle with the Scandinavians, who succeeded in fixing themselves at the mouths of the navigable rivers. *Dublin*, *Limerick*, and *Waterford* were their chief towns.

3. The Danish Wars. Æthelwulf and his Sons.—Egbert was succeeded in 837 by his son *Æthelwulf*, and he by his four sons, *Æthelbald*, *Æthelbert*, *Æthelred I.*, and *Ælfred* (or, as we now write it, *Alfred*), who all reigned one after the other, none of the first three living long. Under Æthelred began the great Danish war, as to the cause of which there are many Northern legends. One tale is that it was undertaken to revenge the death of *Ragnar Lodbrog*, a mighty Viking, who had been shipwrecked on the Northumbrian coast. There the King of the country, *Ælla*, threw him into a dungeon full of poisonous snakes, under whose bites he expired, chanting to the last a wild song recounting his exploits, and boasting that he would "die laughing." Much of this is, no doubt, fabulous, but there may have been a real Ragnar, and several of the chieftains who harassed the British Isles are called his sons. The known facts are that in 866 "a great heathen army" landed in East-Anglia, and in the two next years subdued Northumberland and Mercia. In 870 East-Anglia was again invaded, and its King, *Edmund*, was defeated and slain by the Danish leaders Ingvar and Ubba, sons of Ragnar. Edmund, according to legend, was offered his life and kingdom if he would consent to reign under Ingvar. On his refusal to submit to a heathen lord, the Danes bound him to a tree, scourged him, made him, in savage sport, a mark for their arrows, and at last struck

town, together with Leicester, Lincoln, Nottingham, and Stamford, formed a sort of Danish league, known as the "*Five Boroughs*."

5. **Alfred's Government.**—Alfred worked as hard in peace as in war. He made a collection of *dooms;* some taken from the Mosaic law, others from the old codes of Æthelbert of Kent, Ine, and Offa, adding but few of his own, because he said he did not know how those who came after him might like them. To guard against future invasions, he put the military forces of his dominions on a better footing, and kept up a fleet, doing all he could to revive the old seafaring spirit which seemed to have died out. His ships were partly manned by Frisians, a people inhabiting the coast from Holland to Denmark. Alfred gave largely to the poor and to churches, founded monasteries at Shaftesbury and Athelney, and encouraged learned men, English and foreign, to instruct his people. Learning, he tells us in one of his writings, had so fallen off that when he came to the throne there were very few among the priesthood who understood the Latin services of the Church. He himself learned Latin, and translated many books from that language, often adding passages of his own composition. He sent out seamen to the North on voyages of exploration; also embassies to the Pope, to the Patriarch of Jerusalem, and what is still more noteworthy, to India with alms for the Christian Churches there which had been founded, it is said, by the Apostles St. Thomas and St. Bartholomew. This was the first intercourse between England and the far-off Eastern land which now forms part of the British Empire. Alfred had other wars with the Danes, but his courage and determination carried him through all, and his last years were spent in peace. In 901 he died, and was buried at Winchester.

6. **Eadward or Edward the Elder, 901—925.**—Alfred was succeeded by his elder son *Edward*,

who equalled his father as a soldier, though not as a scholar. He was well seconded by his sister Æthelflæd, who after the death of her husband carried on the Mercian government; and with her help, he recovered from the Danish rule all Essex, East-Anglia, and Mercia. He became more powerful than any former King in Britain, for at his death he was King of the English as far as the Humber, and Lord of all Britain; the princes of Wales, Northumberland, Scotland, and Strathclyde, all owning him for their lord.

7. **Rolf the Northman.**—In those days there was a noted sea-rover, the Northman *Rolf*, called in French *Rou*, and in Latin *Rollo*, and surnamed, it is said, "*Ganger*," that is, the goer or walker, because he was too tall to ride; for when mounted on one of the little horses of the North his feet touched the ground. Rolf spent many years in plundering, and at last fixed himself and his followers in and about Rouen. As he could not be dislodged, the King of the West-Franks, Charles the Simple, bribed him to peace by granting him the land at the mouth of the Seine with Rouen for his capital. Rolf became a Christian and proved a good ruler. He was the founder of a line of princes, called Counts or Dukes of the Northmen or *Normans;* and their land came to be called *Normandy*. In after days these Normans played a great part in the history of England.

CHAPTER V.

FROM ÆTHELSTAN TO THE DANISH KINGS.

Æthelstan; Brunanburh (1)—*Edmund I.* (2)—*Edred; St. Dunstan; Northumberland made an Earldom* (3) —*Edwy; the Monks and the Seculars; Ælfgifu* (4)

—*Edgar* (5)—*Edward the Martyr* (6)—*Æthelred the Unready; battle of Maldon; invasions of Swegen; martyrdom of Ælfheah* (7)—*the Danish Conquest; death of Swegen; restoration of Æthelred* (8)—*Edmund Ironside; division of England* (9).

1. **Æthelstan, 925—940.**—King *Æthelstan*, eldest son of Edward, added to his kingdom Northumberland, which however he was not allowed to keep without a struggle. To wrest it from him, *Anlaf*, son of a Danish King who had reigned at York, and his cousin, another Anlaf, who ruled over the Dublin Danes, leagued themselves with the Scots under their King Constantine, and the Strathclyde Welsh; but their united hosts were in 937 overthrown by Æthelstan and his brother Edmund at *Brunanburh*, a place somewhere north of the Humber. There is a tale that one of the Anlafs played the spy in the English camp, disguised, like Alfred before him, as a minstrel; and that Æthelstan and his nobles gave him money, which Anlaf, too proud to keep it, buried in the ground. The victory was complete for the time; but for twenty years to come the Northumbrian Danes were constantly revolting and setting up Kings of their own. Æthelstan, who is described as a slight-made man with golden hair, and of courteous and dignified manners, died in 940. Æthelstan and many of his successors at times called themselves *Emperor* of Britain, to show that they were lords of the island, and that the Emperors of East and West had no power over them.

2. **Eadmund or Edmund I., surnamed the Magnificent (that is, "The Doer of Great Deeds), 940—946.**—*Edmund*, like his father and brother, had hard fighting with the Northumbrian and Mercian Danes. He overran *Cumberland* or Strathclyde, and granted it to *Malcolm I.*, King of Scots, on condition of receiving assistance from him in war. Edmund came to a sad end when still a young man,

being stabbed by Liofa, a banished robber, who, having insolently seated himself at the royal board, resisted the attempts of the King and others to turn him out.

3. **Eadred or Edred, 946—955.**—Edmund's sons being still children, his brother *Edred* was chosen King. He took as one of his chief advisers, *Dunstan*, afterwards styled *Saint*, who had been as a boy at Æthelstan's court, whence he was driven by the jealousy of his companions. He was even then noted for learning, and the young courtiers taxed him with a knowledge of heathen ballads and spells, which was thought to savour of sorcery. Afterwards he turned monk, and gave himself up to study, and to arts useful for the services of the Church, such as music, painting, and metal-work. When hardly two and twenty years of age he was by King Edmund made Abbot of Glastonbury. In Edred's days the last Scandinavian King of Northumberland, *Eric*, son of Harold Blue-tooth of Denmark, was driven out; and Edred placed the Northumbrians under an *Earl* or governor, *Oswulf*, who was of the house of the Lords of Bamburgh. The title of Earl among the Danes answered to that of Ealdorman among the English.

4. **Eadwig or Edwy, 955—959.**—Upon Edred's death, *Edwy*, elder son of Edmund, though still very young, was chosen King. The history of his brief and troublous reign is obscure, but jealousy between Wessex and the country north of Thames seems to have had a good deal to do with his difficulties. There was also a movement for the reformation of the Church which led to great disputes. The Danish invaders had destroyed many monasteries; those which were left were for the most part monasteries only in name, the property being held by *secular* clerks or clergy, who lived much as they chose. The *secular* clergy were not monks, but lived in the world, being parsons of parishes and canons of

cathedral and collegiate churches, and were often married, despite the feeling which had gradually grown up in the Western Church, that the clergy ought not to marry. There is said to have been much ignorance and vice among the seculars. The objects that those who desired a religious reform set before themselves were to restore the monasteries, to introduce a stricter rule of monastic life, and, as far as possible, to get the cathedral and other great churches into the hands of monks, whom they liked better than secular clergymen, married or unmarried. Dunstan, who had himself reformed his Abbey, and made it famous as a school, sympathized with the monks' party, though he was more moderate and cautious than many of its supporters. Edwy's marriage was another cause of strife. It appears that his wife *Ælfgifu* (in Latin *Elgiva*) was related to him within one of the numerous degrees then forbidden by the ecclesiastical law of marriage, and that the monastic party therefore refused to consider her as the King's wife. Edwy, who was apparently in the hands of the party opposed to the monks, seems from the first to have behaved unwisely, quarrelling almost at the outset of his reign with Dunstan, and driving him out of the country. Whether by his treatment of Dunstan, his marriage, or his government in general, the King gave offence, and in 957 all England north of Thames revolted, choosing Edwy's brother *Edgar* for its King. The next year Archbishop *Oda* prevailed on Edwy to divorce Ælfgifu. There is a story, which happily rests on no good authority, that Oda had her branded in the face and banished, and that when she ventured to come back, she was seized at Gloucester, and put to a cruel death. Nothing is really known of her end; as for Edwy, he died in 959.

5. **Eadgar or Edgar, surnamed the Peaceful, 959—975.**—Edwy's brother King *Edgar*, a youth of sixteen, was now chosen King over the whole

nation—"West-Saxons, Mercians, and Northumbrians." His reign proved peaceable and prosperous, and by maintaining a strong fleet, he kept the country from invasion. Dunstan, now Archbishop of Canterbury, was his counsellor; and, though in many churches secular priests were turned out to make way for monks, Dunstan was too much a statesman to take a violent part in the movement. Thirteen years after his accession to the throne, Edgar was crowned with great solemnity at Bath in 973. He then sailed with his fleet to Chester, where some six or eight of his vassal Kings with their fleets came and swore to do him faithful service by land and sea. Tradition adds that, in token of their submission, they rowed Edgar, who himself acted as steersman, in a boat on the Dee, from his palace at Chester to the Church of St. John and back. There is another tradition that Edgar exacted of Idwal, a rebellious North-Welsh prince, a tribute of three hundred wolves' heads yearly, and that Idwal paid this for three years, but omitted it in the fourth, declaring that he could find no more. Edgar left by different wives two sons, *Edward* and *Æthelred*, one about twelve and the other about six years old.

6. **Eadward or Edward, surnamed the Martyr, 975—979.**—There was much disorder after Edgar's death, for the parties of the monks and the seculars at once began to quarrel again. Besides this, there was a dispute as to which of Edgar's sons should be King; but finally the elder, *Edward*, was chosen. After a reign of less than four years, the young King was murdered at Corfes Gate (Corfe Castle). He was called "the Martyr," a name which the English then readily gave to any good man unjustly slain. The story goes that young Edward, returning tired and thirsty from hunting, stopped at the door of his stepmother, *Ælfthryth* (in Latin *Elfrida*). She came out to welcome him; but while

he was eagerly draining the cup presented to him, he was stabbed by one of her attendants. He at once put spurs to his horse and galloped off, but sinking from the saddle, his foot caught in the stirrup, and he was dragged along till he died. It is added that the child Æthelred, for whose sake the murder had been committed, on hearing of his brother's death burst into tears, at which Ælfthryth in passion beat him till he was almost senseless.

7. **Æthelred II., surnamed the Unready, 979—1016.**—*Æthelred* was only ten years old when raised to the throne. Dunstan seems for some time before his death, which happened in 988, to have taken no part in the government, and Æthelred, when he grew up, let himself be guided by unworthy favourites, so that everything went to wrack and ruin. Weak, treacherous, and cruel, he was always leaving things undone, or doing them at the wrong time; so that he is known in history as "the Unready," that is, the Uncounselled, probably in allusion to his name *Æthel-red*, which means *Noble-in-counsel*. Want of union left the country an easy prey to the Danes and Norsemen, who had, within two years of his accession, renewed their invasions. Each Ealdorman went his own way, making himself as independent as he could; and men cared little for the King or the nation, though they often fought valiantly for their town or their shire. Thus in 991, *Brihtnoth*, the aged Ealdorman of the East-Saxons, fell fighting against Norwegian vikings at *Maldon*. We read the details in the fragment of a poem which has come down to us. "The loathly strangers," so it runs, had offered to withdraw on payment of money, to which Brihtnoth answered that he and his men would "give them spears for tribute." But the plan of buying off the invaders with large sums was soon afterwards adopted by the King and his advisers. The land-tax called *Danegeld*, which

continued to be levied long after the Danish invasions had ceased, was originally imposed for the payment of these tributes. Nothing could have suited the pirates better, and again and again they came to slay and plunder, sure of being bought off in the end. In 994, and again in 1003, the King of the Danes, *Swend* or *Swegen "Forkbeard,"* who had been baptized when a child, but had returned to heathenism, invaded the country, and proved a terrible foe. In 1011 the Danes under one *Earl Thurkill* took Canterbury, carrying away, for ransom or for slavery, a vast number of captives. Among these was the Archbishop *Ælfheah*, who at first agreed to ransom himself, but afterwards refused, being too poor to pay, and unwilling to raise the money from his already impoverished people. In a fit of drunken fury the Danish warriors pelted him with stones and ox-bones, in spite of the remonstrances of Thurkill, who offered all the money he had, or might be able to get—anything except his ship, the dearest possession of a Viking—to save the holy man's life. At last one of the Danes, in pity of the Archbishop's suffering, clove his head with a battle-axe. This is said to have happened at Greenwich, where the parish church of St. *Alphege* (a later form of the name of Ælfheah) still reminds us of the murdered Archbishop.

8. **The Danish Conquest. King Swegen.**—At last, in 1013, Swegen wrested the kingdom from Æthelred. Sailing up the Trent, he obtained without a blow the submission of the country beyond Watling Street. Northumbrian and Mercian forces swelled his army on its march southwards, and Wessex, terror-stricken by his cruelties, was soon conquered. It must be noted to the credit of London that it beat off the invaders four times during this reign, only yielding after all the rest of the country had done so. Swegen being now acknowledged as

King, Æthelred followed his wife *Emma*, who had taken shelter with her brother, Duke *Richard the Good* of Normandy. Early the next year Swegen died—smitten, so men fancied, by the wrath of the Martyr-King Edmund, from whose town of Bury, under threats of destruction to town and townsfolk, church and clergy, he had demanded tribute. Upon this Æthelred was recalled, but he died soon after, while the war was being kept up between his son *Edmund* and Swegen's son *Cnut*.

9. **Eadmund or Edmund II., surnamed Ironside, April 23—Nov. 30, 1016.**—Two rival Kings were now elected, *Edmund*, Æthelred's son by his first marriage, being chosen in London, and *Cnut* at Southampton. Edmund, whose strength and valour gained him the name of *Ironside*, fought six pitched battles against his rival, but was at last induced to share the kingdom with him. Edmund had all south of the Thames, together with East-Anglia, Essex, and London; Cnut took the rest. On Nov. 30th in the same year Edmund died, after a seven months' reign.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DANISH KINGS.

Cnut the Dane; his Kingdoms; the great Earldoms (1)—*story of Cnut and the waves* (2)—*Harold I.; division of the Kingdom between Harold and Harthacnut; death of Alfred; England reunited;* (3)—*Harthacnut* (4).

1. **The Danish Line. Cnut or Canute, 1017—1035.**—*Cnut* the Dane was soon acknowledged as King of all England. He had for some time professed Christianity, and though his earlier deeds were

To face page 33.



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those of a savage, in the end he proved a good ruler The late King's two infant sons he sent to his half-brother Olaf, King of the Swedes, praying him to put them to death. The Swede however placed them unhurt under the care of the King of the Hungarians. Towards the people in general Cnut showed nothing of this cruel and suspicious temper, his aim being to win their trust and to rule as an English King. He gathered about him a standing force of from 3,000 to 6,000 paid soldiers, Danes, Englishmen, and recruits from all parts of Northern Europe; but we never hear of his employing these *Housecarls*—household troops, as we should now say—for purposes of oppression. Besides being King of England and Denmark, he also won Norway and part of Sweden; but he spent most of his time in England, which he liked better than his other dominions. He divided the country into four great governments or Earldoms—*Wessex*, *Mercia*, *East-Anglia*, and *Northumberland*. This last Earldom now extended only from the Humber to the Tweed, as *Lothian*, that part of the old Northumbrian kingdom which lay beyond the Tweed, was held by the King of Scots, and so grew into part of Scotland. Besides the great Earls, who wielded well-nigh royal power, there were many lesser earls, subordinate governors of one or more shires; and the original fourfold division was not strictly adhered to. Thus Northumberland was sometimes split in two, and rather later on, the southern part, which answered to the ancient Deira, began to be distinguished as *Yorkshire*, while the northern part, as far as the Tweed, alone retained the name of Northumberland. Of Cnut's Earls, the most notable was an Englishman, *Godwin*, on whom the King bestowed the hand of a Danishwoman of high rank—*Gytha*, sister of Cnut's brother-in-law Ulf—and the Earldom of Wessex. Cnut died at Shaftesbury in 1035. Not long after his accession, he had married Emma of Normandy,

the widow of King Æthelred, and by her had one son, *Harthacnut.*

2. **Story of Cnut and the Waves.**—Of the legends about Cnut, the most famous is that which records how he one day, during the height of his power, ordered a seat to be placed for him on the sea-shore, and bade the rising tide respect him as its lord, nor dare to wet him. The waves, regardless of the royal command, soon dashed over his feet, and the King leaped back, saying, "Let all the dwellers on earth know that the power of Kings is vain and worthless, nor is there any worthy of the name of King but He whose will heaven, earth, and sea obey by eternal laws." Thenceforth he never wore his crown, but placed it on an image of our Lord on the Cross.

3. **Harold I., 1035–1040.**—*Harthacnut* succeeded his father in Denmark, but in England his friends, Earl Godwin and the West-Saxons, could only obtain for him the rule of the country south of Thames. North of that river the kingdom was given to Cnut's illegitimate son *Harold.* During this divided reign, the Ætheling *Alfred*, younger son of Æthelred and Emma, came over from Normandy, probably hoping for a chance of the kingdom. He was siezed by Harold's men and carried off to Ely, where, his eyes being put out, he died soon after. Earl Godwin was always suspected of having betrayed the Ætheling; but the accounts are so confused, that it is hard to judge. In the next year, 1037, Harold was made ruler over the whole country, his fellow-King having never yet left Denmark.

4. **Harthacnut, 1040–1042.**—On Harold's death in 1040, *Harthacnut* was called to the throne, but his government was so bad that the nation soon rued its choice. He enraged his subjects by the heavy taxes he imposed for the payment of his fleet, and disgusted them by having the dead body of his half-brother

Harold dug up and cast into a fen. The London Danes buried the corpse again in their own burying-ground, the memory of which is still preserved in the name of the church of St. Clement *Danes*. In 1042 Harthacnut died suddenly at a marriage-feast at Lambeth. By his death England and Denmark became separated.

CHAPTER VII.

FROM EDWARD TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

Edward the Confessor; the favourites; Earl Godwin; his banishment, return, and death; Earl Harold (1) *—the Northern Earldoms* (2)*—death of Edward; Westminster; Harold named as successor* (3)*—Harold II.; Duke William of Normandy* (4)*—invasion of Harold Hardrada and Tostig; battle of Stamford Bridge* (5)*—the Norman invasion; battle of Hastings; fall of Harold* (6)*—election of the Ætheling Edgar; coronation of William* (7).

1. **House of Cerdic. Eadward or Edward, surnamed the Confessor or Saint, 1042—1066.** —The old Royal line was now restored, *Edward*, the elder son of Æthelred and Emma, being elected to the throne. Unluckily, the new King, brought up in Normandy from boyhood, was no better than a foreigner. The Normans indeed were Scandinavians by descent; but their manners, ideas, and language were French, and the English commonly called them "Frenchmen." Edward's chief desire was to bring over to England his foreign friends, and to load them with honours, offices, and estates. A Norman monk, *Robert of Jumièges*, whose influence was described as being such "that if he were to say a black crow was white, the King would believe him rather than his own

eyes," was made Archbishop of Canterbury. Earl Godwin however, who at the beginning of the reign was the King's chief adviser, kept the foreigners in check as much as he could. A wise and eloquent statesman, Godwin in the main served his country well, but at the same time had a keen eye to his own interests. His possessions, acquired by grants from successive kings, were enormous; his daughter *Edith* was married to the King, and his two elder sons and his nephew were provided with earldoms. Naturally he was regarded with jealousy by the other great Earls, and still more so by the French favourites, who at last found an opportunity to overthrow him. In 1051 *Eustace, Count of Boulogne*, the husband of King Edward's sister, being on his way home from a visit to the English court, had a brawl with the burghers of Dover, arising out of his own insolent conduct. Godwin refused to inflict any punishment upon the Dover men, who belonged to his Earldom, before they had been heard in their own defence; and the quarrel which consequently arose between him and the King ended in Godwin and all his sons being outlawed. The next year he came back from Flanders at the head of a fleet, and the Norman knights and priests were glad to get away as fast as they could. Archbishop Robert, and *Ulf*, the Norman Bishop of Dorchester, with their followers, forced their way through the east gate of London, and fled over sea. Earl Godwin died not long after, being seized with a fit while dining with the King; but his Earldom and his power passed to his son *Harold*, who in fact ruled the kingdom, and who gained great credit by his victories over the Welsh.

2. **The Northern Earldoms.**—In 1055 died the Earl of the Northumbrians, *Siward "the Strong,"* a fierce and stalwart Dane, familiar to us by name as figuring in Shakspere's play of *Macbeth*. Of his last moments a tale is told, which, whatever may be its

truth, shows what was supposed to be the spirit of a Northern hero. When he felt his end drawing nigh, he exclaimed against the shame, as he deemed it, of dying, not in battle, but of disease—"the death of cows." So he had his armour put on, and his axe placed in his hand, that he might at least die in warrior's garb. *Tostig*, a younger brother of Harold, was appointed in his stead; but the new Earl's rule proved so harsh that in 1065 the Northcountrymen revolted, and setting up a Mercian noble, *Morcar*, as their Earl, succeeded in getting Tostig outlawed. Morcar's elder brother *Edwin* was already Earl of the Mercians, and the dream of the two throughout life seems to have been to form their governments into an independent kingdom.

3. **Death of Edward.**—King Edward died in 1066, having lived just long enough to finish the building of an abbey on the spot where *Sæbert*, first Christian King of the East-Saxons, had founded a small monastery to St. Peter, called the *West-Minster*. In the thirteenth century King Henry III. and his successor replaced Edward's work by the more magnificent church now standing. On his deathbed the childless Edward recommended Earl Harold for his successor; though, according to the Normans, he had promised that their Duke, *William*, should reign after him. Indeed, it is said that Harold himself, being once at the Norman court, had, willingly or unwillingly, sworn to support William. In that age an ordinary oath of *homage* (that is, the oath by which one man made himself the vassal of another) was broken with little scruple; and therefore, according to one tale, the wily Duke had entrapped his guest into unwittingly swearing on all the holiest relics in Normandy. King Edward was soon honoured as a saint; for, though he neglected his duties as a ruler, he was pious after his fashion, and the miseries the people endured under his foreign successors led

them to look back upon him with regret. In later days the title of *Confessor*, which the Church was wont to bestow upon those who were noted for their holy life and death, was conferred upon him.

4. **House of Godwin. Harold II., Jan. 6—Oct. 14, 1066.**—On the day of Edward's death, *Earl Harold*, though not of the Royal house, was elected King by the Witan; the next morning the late King was buried, and the new one crowned, in the West-Minster. On hearing of this, Duke William of Normandy was speechless with rage. He resolved to appeal to the sword; but as it did not suit him to appear a wrongful aggressor, he did his best to make Europe believe he was in the right. He sent to Rome to crave a blessing upon his enterprise, and found there an ally in the *Archdeacon Hildebrand* (afterwards Pope *Gregory VII.*), who eagerly seized the opportunity for bringing the Church of England into more complete obedience to Rome. Under Hildebrand's influence the Pope, *Alexander II.*, declared William the lawful claimant, and sent a consecrated banner to hallow the attack upon England.

5. **Invasion of Harold Hardrada.**—Meanwhile the North of England was invaded by *Harold*, the King of the Norwegians, a gigantic warrior, surnamed, from the harshness of his government, *Hardrada*, that is, *Stern-in-counsel.* He was joined by the exiled Tostig; and Icelanders and Orkneymen, Scots and Irish Danes, flocked together under the "Land-Waster," as the Norwegian standard was called. The invader had already received the surrender of York, when Harold of England came suddenly upon the Norwegian army at *Stamford Bridge*, Sept. 25th. In Scandinavian legend the English King is represented as offering Tostig a third of the kingdom if he would return to his allegiance; Tostig asked what his brother would give Hardrada "for his toil in coming hither?" "Seven feet of the ground of England, or more

perchance, seeing he is taller than other men." But there can have been no time for such parley. The English gained a complete victory, Hardrada and Tostig being among the slain.

6. **Battle of Hastings or Senlac.**—The King was holding the customary victory-feast at York, when a thane of Sussex entered with the tidings that the Normans had landed at Pevensey. Duke William, after waiting more than six weeks for a south wind, had at last set sail, had landed unresisted on the defenceless Sussex shore, Sept. 28th, and occupied *Hastings*. With the utmost speed, Harold marched to London, calling all to his standard—a summons which was readily obeyed, save by the half-hearted Edwin and Morcar, who delayed bringing up their forces. From thence he again set out, and pitched his camp on the height called *Senlac*, about seven miles from Hastings. The eve of battle, so the Normans averred, was spent by the English in drinking and singing, and by the invaders in prayer and confession. On the 14th October the armies joined battle. The combat was long and doubtful, but the impatience of some of the shire levies, who, despite Harold's previous orders, broke their ranks and rushed down the hill in pursuit of some retreating enemies, gave the first advantage to the Normans, whose archers did the rest. An arrow pierced the eye of the English King, who, falling, was hacked in pieces by four French knights, of whom Eustace of Boulogne was one. The thanes and house-carls were slaughtered almost to a man around the fallen standard of their King. On the morrow the aged Gytha craved the body of her son Harold, but the Duke refused to permit it Christian burial. Even to find the mangled corpse was no easy task, and two canons of Waltham, who had followed the English army, made search for it without success, until they brought a former favourite of Harold's, *Edith "of the Swan's Neck,"* to aid them.

7. **Coronation of William.**—The Londoners, together with such of the great men as were at hand, now elected to the throne the young *Ætheling Edgar*, the grandson of Edmund Ironside. But though Edwin and Morcar, who on the news of Harold's fall had hastened their march, consented to the youth's election, they were cold in his cause, and soon betook themselves home with their forces. Thus left unsupported, those in London ere long tendered the crown to the Norman Duke, then at Berkhamstead. On Christmas Day, William the Norman—the *Conqueror*, as he is called in history—was crowned King at Westminster.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE OLD-ENGLISH AND NORMANS

The Old-English (1)—*the ordeal* (2)—*the slave-trade* (3)—*London* (4)—*language* (5)—*literature* (6)—*the Normans; the Bayeux Tapestry* (7)—*castles; church-building* (8)—*feudal tenures; fealty, homage, and service; knights and barons; decay of feudalism; villainage* (9)—*government* (10)—*the towns; the gilds* (11).

1. **The Old-English.**—The English appear to have been a well-favoured race, from the days of Pope Gregory's "Angels" to the time when King William, returning to Normandy after his coronation, carried in his train the Ætheling Edgar and other young Englishmen, on whose "girlish grace" and flowing hair the French and Normans gazed with admiration. Yet young Earl *Waltheof*, one of those whose beauty is thus praised, attained to giant strength, and proved that he was no degenerate son of his father, Earl Siward the Strong. The ancient English

weapons were the javelin and the broadsword; for the latter Cnut substituted the two-handed Danish axe. The full equipment of the warrior—helm, mail-coat, shield, and axe—was of course beyond the means of the mass of the shire levies, most of whom came to the battle of Hastings without any defensive armour, and some with no better weapons than forks or sharpened stakes. Both English and Danes always fought on foot; men of the highest, even of kingly rank, using horses on the march only, and dismounting for action. The English, among whom all ranks exercised liberal hospitality, are described as spending their substance in good cheer, while content with poor houses—unlike the Normans and French, who lived frugally in fine mansions—and as indulging in coarse gluttony and drunkenness, vices which they taught to their conquerors. They had however better amusements than mere revelry. They took great pleasure in poetry, singing, and harp-playing; and professional "gleemen," who combined the characters of juggler, tumbler, and minstrel, wandered from house to house. There were also outdoor sports—wrestling, leaping, racing, and hunting with net, hound, or hawk. Nor were the English, at the time of the Norman Conquest, an uncultivated people. They had books of medicine, natural science, grammar and geography, in their own language. They were skilful in goldsmith's work, in embroidery, in illumination of manuscripts, as well as in the crafts of the weaver and the armourer.

2. **The Ordeal.**—The *ordeal* was a method of ascertaining the guilt or innocence of an accused person by a supposed appeal to the judgment of Heaven. After certain religious rites, the accused plunged his hand into boiling water, or carried a hot iron for three paces. If in three days the scald or burn had healed, he was cleared; if not, he was held guilty. A man of ill reputation was obliged to undergo

a threefold ordeal—that is, the weight of the iron was increased threefold, or he had to plunge his arm up to the elbow in the water—where a single ordeal would suffice for persons of credit. The Normans introduced in addition the *trial by battle*, which was an appeal to Heaven by means of a duel between accuser and accused.

3. **The Slave-trade.**—The crying sin of England, even in the estimation of that age, was the slave-trade. Although the export of Christian slaves was forbidden by law, nothing could check it. The town of Bristol was the chief seat of this slave-trade, and strings of young men and women were shipped off regularly from that port to Ireland, where they found a ready market. King William was as zealous against this traffic as his predecessors, and with no better success. What the law failed to do, *St. Wulfstan*, Bishop of Worcester, effected, at least for a season. He visited Bristol repeatedly, and preached every Sunday against the trade until he had prevailed on the burghers to abandon it. Later on, in 1102, *St. Anselm*, Archbishop of Canterbury, held a synod at Westminster, in which a decree was put forth forbidding all traffic in slaves—"that wicked trade by which men in England were still wont to be sold like brute beasts."

4. **London.**—At the time of the Norman Conquest, *London*, so advantageously placed upon the Thames, was already the chief city in England, and fast displacing the old West-Saxon capital of *Winchester*. But the London of those days was surrounded by wood and water and waste land where the deer and wild boar roamed. The names of *Moorfields* and *Moorgate* still mark the place where once was a dreary moor or fen. Westminster Abbey was built upon a thicket-grown island or peninsula, inclosed by river and streams and marshes, and called *Thorn-ey*, that is, the Isle of Thorns. By the Abbey was the Palace, where the Confessor in his later years chiefly dwelled,

that he might watch the building of his Minster. The name of *Old* Palace Yard marks where his dwelling-place was ; *New* Palace Yard being so called from the palace built by the Conqueror's son and successor *William Rufus*.

5. **Language.**—The English language has so changed in the course of centuries that in its most ancient form it seems like a foreign tongue to us. Besides the changes that all living and growing languages undergo, there crept in a number of French words and idioms, which have made a great difference between modern English and the purely Teutonic language which is known as *Old-English*. The dialects which were spoken in different parts of the country fall into three great divisions, Northern, Midland, and Southern, distinctions which still linger in spoken English. What we call "Scotch" is in truth one form of Northumbrian English ; while the dialects of Somerset and Dorset preserve the remains of the Southern speech. Modern English—the language in which books are written and which educated people are taught to use—has grown out of the East-Midland dialect, the speech of the shires bordering on the Fenland.

6. **Literature.**—Among the most ancient specimens of Old-English literature is the fine poem of the hero *Beówulf* and his combats with the ogre Grendel and with a fiery dragon. This tale was composed before the English tribes had migrated from the Continent to Britain, and it is easy to see that it belongs to heathen times, though the text, as we have it, has been re-written in Northumberland, and has received some Christian touches. Our first Christian poet, *Cædmon*, who sang of the creation of the world, the entry of Israel into Canaan, and the mysteries of the Christian faith, was believed by himself and his contemporaries to have received his powers by the direct gift of Heaven. He had never learned aught of

singing;—when sometimes at an entertainment it was determined that all the guests should sing in turn, Cædmon, on seeing the harp approach him, would leave in the middle of supper. On one occasion he had thus left the feast, and had lain down to sleep in the stable, the care of the beasts being committed to him that night. In a dream one stood by him and spoke: "Cædmon, sing me something." He pleaded ignorance; but the command was repeated: "Sing the beginning of created things." And forthwith he began to sing verses he had never heard before. In the morning he revealed his new powers, and was received by the famous Abbess St. Hild into her monastery at Whitby. This story is told by *Bæda*, called the *Venerable*, a monk of *Jarrow*, who died in 735. He was one of the most learned men of his age; and from his chief work, "*The Ecclesiastical History of the English People*," written in Latin, we get great part of our knowledge of those times. *Ealhwine* or *Alcuin*, born about the time of Bæda's death, and educated in the school of York, had so high a reputation as a scholar, that *Charles the Great*, King of the Franks and Lombards, and afterwards Emperor of the Romans, invited him over to his court to lay the foundations of learning in his dominions. But the literature of Northumberland, which had already begun to fall off, almost wholly perished during the ravages of the Danes. Under King Alfred, learning and literature found a new home in Wessex. Whether he actually had a hand in the composition of the *English* or *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is not certain, but it is thought that in his reign it began to be put together in its present shape, after which it was regularly continued. Of this Chronicle England may well be proud, for no other European nation has so ancient and trustworthy a history written in its own language. A fine song upon the battle of Brunanburh is inserted in the Chronicle, as if prose was insufficient to

express the national exultation. Other snatches of song occur here and there in the Chronicle; and besides the poetry preserved to us, there appear to have been many popular ballads sung by the gleemen, from which some of the tales about our early Kings were derived.

7. **The Normans.**—The Normans had become Christian and civilized without losing the vigour and adventurous spirit of their Scandinavian forefathers. In whatever they did, they were foremost; and though in the arts of peace they were not inventors, they acquired, improved, and spread abroad all the learning, science, and art of the age. Above all, their valour and military skill were renowned throughout Europe. They brought new strength and life to the English race, and thus the country gained by the conquest in the end, and became more free and great. The middle-class English—the small thanes and the townsfolk—soon mixed with the foreign settlers, Norman and others; and, only a few years after the Conquest, French and English were already beginning to live together on good terms, and to intermarry, so that by the time of King *Henry II*, the great-grandson of the Conqueror, it was impossible, except in the highest and lowest ranks, to distinguish one race from the other. The peasantry were supposed to be purely Old-English, and the great men still were, or liked to be thought, of Norman blood. The Norman method of warfare differed from the English and Danish, which it displaced. The Norman and French gentlemen fought on horseback armed with lance and sword, and would have thought it beneath their dignity to go into battle on foot. Of the common men a large number were archers; and in course of time the English became more expert than any other nation in the use of the long-bow. The attire and weapons both of the conquering and the conquered race are well

known to us from the famous tapestry preserved at *Bayeux*, which represents in a series of pictures the history of the Norman Conquest. There have been many conjectures as to the origin of the tapestry, but the most probable one is that it was a gift from King William's half-brother Bishop *Odo* to his cathedral church at Bayeux.

8. **Castle and Church Building.**—One of the earliest French words introduced into our language was *castle*, the name and the thing being alike foreign. Fortified towns and citadels were indeed familiar to Englishmen; but private fortresses, such as were raised first by the Confessor's Norman favourites, greatly to the wrath of the English people, were something new, and these were called *castles*. To possess one was the wish of every Norman noble; for when once his *donjon*, *keep*, or tower was built, he was king of the country round, and, until regular siege was laid to it, might laugh at the law. But though a strong, it was a dark and dreary dwelling. A splendid specimen of the donjon on its grandest scale is the *White Tower* of London, built for King William by *Gundulf*, Bishop of Rochester. William raised many castles of his own, to overawe rather than to defend the towns beneath them, though he wisely did not allow private ones to be built without royal licence. The eleventh century was a great time for church-building, and the Normans in England carried on the work vigorously, almost all the bishops rebuilding their cathedral churches. St. Paul's having been destroyed or damaged by fire, *Maurice*, Bishop of London, began a mighty pile to replace it. His successors continued it, and it became the largest church in England. The style of the age, *Romanesque*, as it is called, was greatly improved by the Normans, and the new form they gave it is commonly spoken of as the *Norman* style of architecture. Its characteristic points are the round arch, massive pier, and narrow

window. Durham Cathedral, begun in the reign of Rufus by Bishop *William of St. Carilef* and continued by his successor *Ranulf Flambard*, is a fine specimen of Norman Romanesque.

9. **Feudal Tenures.**—There had grown up abroad a system of land-tenure, law, and government, which is known as *feudalism;* and after the coming in of the Normans, *feudal* ideas and practices obtained much more dominion in England, which had hitherto not been affected by them to any great extent. When a *lord* granted land to his *man* or *vassal* on condition of fidelity and service in war, the vassal was said to hold by a *feudal tenure*, the land so held being called a *feudum*, *fief*, or *fee*. (See the *General Sketch of European History.*) The vassal, when his fief was conferred, swore *fealty* (fidelity), and did *homage.* In the most complete form of homage, as it was performed in England, the vassal, bare-headed, with belt ungirt, knelt before his lord, between whose hands he placed his own, and promised thenceforward to become "his man of life and limb and earthly honour," and to be faithful and loyal to him. The most marked feature of feudalism in England was the tenure by *knight-service.* The *knight*, in French *chevalier*, answered pretty nearly to the *thane* of earlier days; he held an estate of a certain yearly value, and his duty was, when called upon by the King or by his lord, to serve in war, on horseback and fully equipped, for forty days in the year. Every great landowner was bound, according to the amount of land that he held, to bring so many of these mounted followers into the field. Not laymen alone, but also bishops and clerical and monastic bodies, held lands by military service, and furnished their quota of warriors to the King's forces; though by the law of the Church ecclesiastics might not serve in person, a restriction which they did not always observe. Although landowners holding by knight-service were for some purposes classed as

knights, in strictness a knight, at least from the twelfth century onwards, should have been "dubbed knight," the ceremony which marked him as a warrior. This dignity of knighthood was often bestowed on a valiant man who had no qualification in land, and men even of royal blood were proud to receive it. Hence "knightly" and "chivalrous" became equivalent to the modern terms of "soldier-like" and "gentlemanlike." The great *barons*, or military tenants of the Crown, having little armies of trained knights under them, were formidable personages when they chose to be rebellious. William and his successors however took all possible care that the King should not, as in France, be overshadowed by his own great vassals. The King was *sovereign* or supreme lord, of whom all land was supposed to be held in the first instance; and the danger of his sovereignty becoming a mere name, as was the case in some countries, in consequence of its being thought that the under vassals owed duty only to their immediate lords, and not to the King also, was avoided by the passing of a law in a Meeting held at Salisbury in 1086, obliging all freemen to swear allegiance to William. Thus no man could think himself justified in following his own lord in rebellion against the King, the sovereign lord of all. The barons however strove hard to cripple the royal power, until the nobility of the Conquest had nearly died out, and new nobles were raised up, first by the Conqueror's son King *Henry I.*, and after him by *Henry II.* In the following history we shall find the people at first siding with the Crown, and afterwards with the barons. Harsh as the foreign Kings were, they kept down the worse tyranny of their nobles; but when the Crown had triumphed, and a new and better class of nobles had arisen, it became the barons' turn to restrain the royal despotism. The Kings early discovered that their feudal rights could be used as means of wringing

money from their vassals, who in their turn treated their tenants as the King treated themselves; and even after feudalism as a military system had fallen into decay, and the main ground for its existence had thus disappeared, its grievances remained, until the abolition in the seventeenth century of the tenures by knight-service. To the poorer freemen or *churls*, feudalism was disadvantageous. Even before the Norman Conquest, this class had been falling under the authority of the great landowners. Though it was more dignified to be a free landowner, it was often safer to be a dependent, paying rent to, or doing work for, some strong and warlike lord, who would defend the churl's rights, and be answerable for the military service due from his land. In feudal times the churl became a *villain* (from the Latin *villanus*, husbandman), a serf bound to the soil he tilled, and unable to change his abode—a condition above actual slavery, though below freedom. The *villains* were in fact labourers whose wages were paid, not in money, but in the shape of a small holding, perhaps only a cottage and patch of ground, and for two centuries after the Conquest their position was not hard, though by degrees it grew worse. They were a rough and ignorant class, but not badly off, according to the ideas of the time, and exempt from the dangers of a warlike life. In feudal times the slaves became hardly distinguishable from villains, and what was a fall for the free churl was a rise for the slave. Thus slavery gradually died out, as in the course of ages did *villainage* likewise.

10. **Government.**—The Norman Conquest brought about considerable changes in the government. The *Witena-gemót* became the *Great Council*, the King's court of feudal vassals, which perhaps was sometimes an assembly of all landowners, but usually only of bishops, abbots, earls, barons, and knights. The chief minister of the Norman Kings, from the

reign of Rufus, bore the title of *Justiciar.* The *Chancellor* was of somewhat earlier origin, as he appears in the reign of the Confessor. He was usually an ecclesiastic, the chief of the royal chaplains, and with them kept the royal accounts, drew up and sealed writs, and wrote the King's letters. The system of government by *Earls* was gradually given up. At first, more or less of the authority of an ancient earl or ealdorman seems still to have been conferred with the title; but in course of time it became, as now, merely an hereditary titular dignity. The final stroke was put to a change which had been coming about for some generations. The *folkland*, or public land, as much as was left of it, became Crown land, which the Sovereign could grant away at his pleasure. This right was greatly abused until, many centuries later, Parliament interfered to limit it. As the royal domain has since been under the control of Parliament it has in fact gone back to the condition of folkland.

11. **The Towns.**—It has been sarcastically remarked that, though we are fond of boasting that the liberties of England were bought with the blood of our forefathers, it would be more generally accurate to say that they were purchased with money. This is peculiarly true in the case of the towns. At the time of the Norman Conquest we find the inhabitants of towns living under the protection of the King or other lord, to whom they paid rents and dues. The first steps towards an administration and organization of their own were taken in order to free themselves from the exactions of the sheriff, who collected the sum due to the King from the shire. As whatever he could collect above that sum was his own profit, he was under temptation to exact from the rich burghers more than was legally due; and they therefore made it a point to have a valuation of their town fixed. The next step was to take the collection of this sum out of the sheriff's hands, which was done by

obtaining from the Crown a charter letting the town to the burghers at a certain rent. By degrees they gained, usually by purchase, further privileges and more complete independence. They were still however liable to taxes, called *tallages*, at the pleasure of the King. Henry I. granted a charter to the citizens of London, by which he gave them large privileges. He permitted them to appoint their own sheriff, to have their ancient hunting-grounds,—a mighty favour from one of the Norman Kings, who were loth to let anyone hunt but themselves; and he freed them from the obligation to accept the *trial by battle.* To King *John*, the son of Henry II., London owed the privilege of choosing its own *Mayor*, an officer who, with his French title, first appears early in the reign of John's brother and predecessor on the throne, *Richard I.* The example set by the Kings in their cities and boroughs was followed by the great lords who held boroughs, to which they granted similar privileges. *Trade gilds* in like manner bought charters. These *gilds* or sworn brotherhoods were very old institutions in England, and in their earliest form were associations for religious purposes, for mutual defence against injury, or for mutual relief in poverty. Of the *craft-gilds* or associations of free handicraftsmen, the most ancient were those of the weavers. Henry I. chartered the weavers of Oxford, and also those of London, who paid him in return eighteen marks yearly. By this London charter the right of exercising the craft within the City, Southwark, or other places belonging to London, was confined to members of the gild. The craft-gilds were in fact a kind of trade-unions, though composed of masters; but these masters were but small people, for in those days there were no great employers of labour such as there are now, and therefore no large class of hired workmen. The *merchant-gilds* or gilds of traders by degrees grew into the governing bodies of their towns.

CHAPTER IX.

WILLIAM I.

William the Conqueror (1)—*the confiscations* (2)—*completion of the Norman Conquest; harrying of the North; defence of the Isle of Ely; the Ætheling Edgar; beheading of Waltheof* (3)—*Lanfranc; William's government; Domesday; the New Forest* (4)—*imprisonment of Odo; death of William; Battle Abbey* (5).

1. **The Norman Kings. William I., surnamed the Great and the Conqueror, 1066-1087.**—The Norman King was a hard and strong-willed man, who never shrank from oppression or cruelty when they would serve his purpose, but who scarcely ever committed a merely wanton crime. He was ambitious of power, but he at any rate meant to use it well, and he had been a good ruler in his own land of Normandy. He was strong in body as in mind; no hand but his could bend his bow, and, although in later life he became excessively fat, he was always majestic in bearing. His wife, Queen *Matilda*, for whom he had a constant affection, was the daughter of Baldwin, Count of Flanders.

2. **The Confiscations.**—William, looking upon Harold as a mere usurper, claimed to be the lawful successor of the Confessor, and was careful to act in strictly legal form. According to his view, all Englishmen had been traitors, for they had either tried to keep him out, or at least not helped to bring him in; and as traitors, all their estates might be *confiscated*, that is, taken possession of by the State. He at once confiscated a great deal, out of which he made grants to his followers; and every fresh disturbance or

rebellion was made a ground for confiscating more. The result was that the country got a set of foreign nobles, and that many Englishmen lost all, or nearly all, that they had, or became tenants under Norman lords; but every one, French or English, held his lands solely from the King's grace.

3. **Completion of the Norman Conquest.**—After an absence of less than six months, William went over to Normandy, to show himself in his new dignity. Yet in truth his conquest was only begun; and he had the West and the North still to win. That part of the country which was in his grasp he left under the rule of his half-brother *Odo of Bayeux*, and of his trusty friend *William Fitz-Osbern*, making the former *Earl of Kent* and the latter *Earl of Hereford*. These treated the English so oppressively that the King on his return found matters in a troublous state. Still he kept his hold on the south-eastern shires, and when he marched to conquer the West-country, English levies formed part of his army. It took him about three years and a half to get full possession of the land; for there was still spirit among the people. But a revolt here and a revolt there, with no common plan or leader, were useless against so good a soldier. The most formidable rising was in 1069, when the King of the Danes, *Swegen Estrithson*, sent a fleet to the help of the English in the North, who were joined by the Ætheling Edgar. York, where the Normans had built two castles to command the Ouse, was the first point of attack. There the stalwart Earl Waltheof, so the story goes, took his stand by a gate; and as the Normans pressed forth one by one, their heads were swept off by his unerring axe. William took a savage method of crushing the North-country into obedience. At the head of his troops he marched through the length and breadth of the land between York and Durham, and deliberately made it a desert. For nine years the ground remained waste, no man

thinking it worth while to till it; and even a generation later ruined towns and uncultivated fields still bore witness to the cruelty of the Conqueror. The hitherto unconquered country between the Tyne and the Tees was harried in like manner, as also Cheshire and the neighbouring shires, the city of Chester being William's last conquest. More than 100,000 people, then no small part of the population, are said to have died of hunger and cold that winter. William was now master of the land, although a band of outlaws and insurgents, chief among them one *Hereward*, still held together in the Isle of Ely. In those days the rising ground of Ely was really almost an island, surrounded by streams and deep fens. When, after a brave defence, this last stronghold surrendered to William, Hereward, with a small band of comrades, escaped by water, and legend goes on to tell how he led an outlaw's life in the woods, and was the terror of the foreigners, until he made his peace with the King. One story says that he was nevertheless treacherously cut to pieces by a party of Normans. "Had there been three more men in the land like him, the French would never have entered it," is said to have been the remark of one of his slayers. Of the other English leaders, Edgar, after finding shelter for some time with his brother-in-law King *Malcolm III.* of Scotland, made his peace and settled down in Normandy; and Morcar, who had been among the defenders of Ely, dragged out his life in captivity. Waltheof was taken for a time into high favour, being made Earl of Northumberland; but afterwards getting entangled in a conspiracy against William, he was sentenced to death. At early morn, May 31st, 1076, he was led outside Winchester to die. The headsmen grew impatient at the length of his prayers. "Let me at least say the Lord's Prayer for me and for you," pleaded the Earl; but ere he had finished, the executioner struck off his head as he knelt. The bystanders fancied that they

heard the severed head complete the prayer; and by his countrymen Waltheof was honoured as a martyr.

4. **William's Government.**—William placed in the Archbishopric of Canterbury *Lanfranc*, a Lombard by birth, who was held to be the most learned man in Europe. Under the new Primate the Church of England was brought into closer connexion with that of Rome, and the bishoprics were gradually filled up with foreigners. The Norman King tried, though with small success, to learn English, and his rule was in some points good; but in later years he grew avaricious and grasping, shutting his eyes to any oppression by his officers if it brought him in money. In 1085, after consulting with the Witan, he decreed the making of *Domesday*—the great Survey of the country, in which every estate, as far north as the Tees, was entered, with its values at the time and in that of Edward. This work, so useful to the historian, was then looked on with distrust and indignation, as a step towards further taxation. Not a yard of land, not so much as an ox, or a cow, or a pig, was left unrecorded, so the Chronicler complains. William delighted in hunting, and his cruel law, which condemned the deerslayer to lose his eyes, was another grievance. The *New Forest* in Hampshire was made by him, and stories are told of his destroying houses and churches which stood in his way. Long after his time, the forests, which were constantly being increased, continued to be a cause of bitterness, on account of the severe laws for the protection of the game. To understand how a forest could be made, it must be explained that a *forest* was not merely a *wood*, but rather any uncultivated ground.

5. **Death of William.**—In his later years William was troubled by the rebellion of his eldest son *Robert*, who had been aggrieved by his father's refusal to make over to him the Duchy of Normandy. Odo of Bayeux

also gave cause of displeasure. Having taken up a notion of getting himself made Pope, he was gathering a band of Normans for an expedition into Italy, when the King cut short his schemes by ordering his arrest. As those present had scruples about laying violent hands on a' Bishop, William himself arrested his brother. Instructed by Lanfranc, the King was ready with his justification :—"I do not seize the Bishop of Bayeux, but the Earl of Kent." And accordingly the Earl-Bishop was kept in ward until the King on his deathbed set him free. In 1087 William was laying waste the borderland between France and Normandy in revenge for a stupid jest which the French King had made upon his unwieldy figure. While riding through the burning town of Mantes, and urging his men to add fresh fuel to the flames, his horse, treading on the hot embers, made a bound forward, and William, being pitched against the pommel of the saddle, received an internal injury, of which he lingered many weeks. On his deathbed he expressed a tardy penitence for his unjust conquest of England, and above all for the harrying of the North. What he had won by wrong, he said, he had no right to give away, so he would only declare his wish that he might be succeeded in England by his second son *William*, who had ever been dutiful to him. Robert, who was still at enmity with his father, was to have Normandy, together with the adjoining province of *Maine*, which William had conquered. The King died at Rouen in Normandy, Sept. 9th, and was buried at Caen. *Battle Abbey*, near Hastings, was built by him upon the spot where Harold's standard had stood.

CHAPTER X.

WILLIAM II.

Election of William; rebellion of Odo, character of William; Ranulf Flambard; the Royal followers (1) *—Norman affairs; Scottish affairs* (2)*—Flambard's financial expedients; Anselm made Primate* (3)*—the First Crusade; Normandy mortgaged* (4)*—death of William* (5)*—building of Westminster Hall* (6).

1. **William II., surnamed Rufus, or the Red King, 1087-1100.**—The Conqueror's wish was fulfilled, his son *William* being elected and crowned King, Sept. 26th. But Odo of Bayeux worked upon the barons, pointing out how much better it would suit them to be governed by the easy-tempered Robert than by the fierce and masterful William; and almost all the great Norman nobles joined in an attempt to transfer the crown to Duke Robert. William thereupon made an appeal to the English, promising them the best laws they ever had, liberty of hunting on their own lands, and freedom from unjust taxes. The English answered with hearty support, and soon quelled the rebellion; but their loyalty was ill requited. "Who is there who can fulfil all that he promises?" was William's angry reply when Lanfranc reminded him that he had sworn to rule with justice and mercy. In 1089 Lanfranc died, and with him all hope of good government. *Rufus*, or the *Red King*, as he was called from his ruddy complexion, inherited his father's valour, but no other of his virtues. He gave himself up to gross vice, was irreligious and blasphemous in speech, and surrounded himself with wicked and foolish companions, who caused scandal equally by their sins and their follies. His promise

to impose no unjust taxes was early broken; for being utterly reckless how he spent his money, he was soon in need. As an instance of his tasteless extravagance we are told that one morning when putting on a pair of new boots, he asked his chamberlain what they had cost? "Three shillings." Rufus flew into a rage:—"How long has the King worn boots at so paltry a price? Go and bring me a pair worth a mark of silver." The chamberlain returned with a pair in reality cheaper than those rejected, and told him they had cost the price he had named. "Ay," said Rufus, "these are suitable to royal majesty." After this the chamberlain was sharp enough to charge the King what he pleased for his clothes. The King's chief adviser was *Ranulf*, a Norman priest, who went by the nickname of "*Flambard*," or the Torch, and whom he afterwards made Bishop of Durham. This minister's ingenuity was employed in laying on grinding taxes, and otherwise raising money; the halter, it was said, was loosed from the robber's neck if he could promise any gain to the Sovereign. Wherever the King and the court went, they did as much damage as an invading army; for the royal followers lived at free quarters on the country people, and often repaid their hosts by wasting or selling everything they could lay their hands on, and, in wanton insolence, washing their horses' legs with the liquor they did not drink.

2. Norman and Scottish affairs.—In 1091 the King attacked Robert in his Duchy, and constrained him to surrender part of his dominions. Having thus come to an agreement, the two joined together to dispossess their third brother *Henry*, whom they drove from his stronghold of Mount St. Michael in Normandy. The King then returned to deal with an invasion of the Scots; and made a peace with their King, Malcolm, who renewed to Rufus the homage he had already paid to the Conqueror. Malcolm's next

invasion in 1093 cost him his life, he being killed before Alnwick. In the previous year William had enlarged the English Kingdom by the addition of the northern part of modern *Cumberland*, with its capital, *Carlisle*. This district, when Rufus marched into it, was a separate principality, ruled by an English noble named *Dolfin*, who was probably a vassal of the Scottish King. Having driven out Dolfin, William restored Carlisle, which had never recovered its destruction by the Danes in Alfred's time, built a castle there, and colonized the wild surrounding country with Flemings and English peasants from the South. Cumberland became an English Earldom, and in the next reign Carlisle was made the seat of a bishopric.

3. **Archbishop Anselm.** — Flambard's great device for raising money was that the King should take possession of all vacant bishoprics and abbeys, and farm out their lands and revenues to the highest bidder. If he at last named a new bishop or abbot, it was understood that the honour was to be paid for. Thus the See of Canterbury had never been filled since Lanfranc's death. But in Lent, 1093, the King falling grievously sick, and being pricked in conscience, in his terror promised good government, and named to the Archbishopric *Anselm*, an Italian by birth, and Abbot of Bec in Normandy. Anselm, a man of great learning and holiness, who was afterwards canonized as Saint, was unwilling, and with good reason, to receive the dangerous honour; for no sooner had William got well than he fell back into worse ways than ever. Anselm had likened himself to a feeble old sheep yoked to the plough with an untamed bull; and in truth he and the King agreed as ill as he had foretold. But feeble as Anselm called himself, no man was more outspoken in rebuking wrong, or firmer in upholding what he thought to be right. At last, after many quarrels, the Archbishop withdrew to Rome.

4. Normandy mortgaged.—Meanwhile Normandy, which the King had again striven to win by force, came quietly within his grasp. From early ages it had been the practice of Christians to make pilgrimages to the Holy Land, to pray at the Sepulchre of Christ; and about this time a flame of indignation was raised throughout Europe by tales of the wrongs done by the Turks to the native Christians of Palestine and to the pilgrims. At the call of the Pope, an armed expedition set out in 1096 to rescue the Holy Sepulchre from the Mohammedans; and from all parts of Europe men flocked to the *Crusade*, so called because those who took part in it put a cross, in Latin *crux*, upon their garments. Among those who were stirred by the prevailing enthusiasm was Robert of Normandy. To meet the expense of his undertaking, he mortgaged for 10,000 marks his Duchy to his brother, and set off joyously to Palestine, while William entered into full possession of Normandy.

5. Death of William.—Rufus, like his father, was passionately fond of the chase, and so far from continuing to allow the liberty of hunting accorded at the beginning of his reign, he at last made it death to take a stag. On the 2nd August, 1100, he was hunting in the New Forest. Some vague suspicion of intended foul play was probably afloat, for evil dreams had been dreamed by himself and others, and on this account he had been half persuaded not to hunt that day. But wine kindled his courage; a letter from the Abbot of Gloucester, recounting a warning vision, was received with the scornful question, "Does he think that I follow the fashion of the English, who will put off a journey for a sneeze or an old wife's dream?" and forth he went into the Forest. Soon after, he was found lying pierced by the shaft of a crossbow, and in the agonies of death. Suspicion fell on one of the hunting-party, a French knight named *Walter Tyrell*, who fled for his life and got away to

France. That he had accidentally shot the King became the common belief, but he always denied it; and as no one ever owned to having seen Rufus struck, the matter remains in doubt. Some countrymen carried the King's body in a cart to Winchester, where it was buried without any religious rite; for it was thought unseemly to bestow such upon him who had been thus cut off in the midst of unrepented sins.

6. **Westminster.**—*Westminster Hall* was first built by Rufus, whose love of architecture was one of his better tastes; but it was afterwards cased over and otherwise altered in the time of Richard II.

CHAPTER XI.

HENRY I.

Henry I.; Charter of Liberties (1)—*marriage with Edith-Matilda; invasion of Duke Robert; Normandy won by Henry* (2)—*dispute between Henry and Anselm* (3)—*Wales; settlement of Flemings* (4)—*death of the Queen; death of William; second marriage of Henry; fealty sworn to Matilda* (5)—*death of Henry; his government* (6).

1. **Henry I., surnamed the Clerk or Scholar, 1100–1135. Charter of Liberties.**—*Henry*, youngest son of the Conqueror, was one of the hunting-party when Rufus fell. As soon as he heard of his brother's death, he galloped for Winchester, and there made himself master of the royal treasure. On the morrow the barons who were at hand went through the form of electing him to be King, and two days later he was crowned at Westminster, thus forestalling his brother Robert, who was loitering on his way home from the Crusade. To reconcile all to his accession, he put out

a *Charter of Liberties*, in which he promised to the Church neither to sell nor farm benefices, nor take any profit to himself from vacant sees and abbeys; and to his vassals the abolition of sundry arbitrary exactions and oppressive customs under which they had suffered in the last reign, bidding them make the same concessions to their own vassals. To the nation at large he promised the restoration of "the law of King Edward"—that is, the laws and customs that had prevailed in the time of the Confessor—with the amendments made by the Conqueror.

2. **Normandy won.**—The evil companions of Rufus were removed from the court, and Archbishop Anselm was recalled. Further to win the people's hearts, Henry took to wife *Edith*, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, and, on the side of her mother Margaret, descended from the West-Saxon Kings. She assumed the Norman name of *Matilda*, and was by the people surnamed "the Good." The nobles were for the most part unfriendly to the King, and, relying on their support, Duke Robert invaded England to push his claim to the crown. The English stood by Henry, and Anselm exerting all his influence over the nobles, the dispute between the brothers was made up without bloodshed. After this, the King set himself to break the power of his barons, bringing various charges against the most disaffected and lawless, and punishing them with heavy fines, confiscation of their lands, or banishment. One after another, the chief families founded by the Norman Conquest fell, and Henry raised up new men who owed their greatness to himself. The King's next object was to wrest Normandy from his brother; and by a victory at *Tinchebrai* in 1106 he obtained possession both of the Duchy and of Robert, whom he kept a prisoner until his death in 1134. The Ætheling Edgar, who, having followed Robert, was among the captives, was allowed to live unmolested in England.

3. Archbishop Anselm.—About this time a dispute between Henry and Anselm was brought to an end. The English Kings claimed that bishops and abbots should be nominated by them, should become their vassals like the lay barons, and from their hands should receive the ring and staff which were the emblems of their spiritual authority. This was the *investiture*, the legal form by which the new prelate was put in possession of the lands and revenues of his benefice. This right of investiture, which was claimed by princes throughout Western Christendom, led in the hands of unworthy rulers like Rufus to the sale of bishoprics and similar abuses, and it had for some time been contested by the Popes. Anselm therefore, though he had formerly felt no scruple about thus receiving his Archbishopric from Rufus, now, in obedience to the Church's decree, refused to do homage to Henry, or to consecrate the bishops invested by him. In the end both sides gave way somewhat, the Pope consenting that the prelates should do homage, and Henry giving up his claim to invest them with the ring and staff; but that Henry should peaceably yield anything was in itself a victory. The Church was at this time almost the only check upon the will of rulers; but men soon began to complain of the power of the Pope, which Anselm had helped to strengthen, as in its turn an evil. Anselm died in 1109.

4. Wales. The Flemish Settlement.—The Conqueror had formed the northern frontier towards Wales into the Earldoms of *Shrewsbury* and *Chester*, and constant warfare went on between his Earls and their restless Welsh neighbours. *Roger of Montgomery*, the Norman Earl of Shrewsbury, was the founder of a border castle, which, together with the town at its foot, bore his own surname, *Montgomery*. In the time of Rufus, the Normans made their way into southern Wales, establishing themselves in castles and towns,

while the Welsh princes went on reigning in the wilder parts of the land. Rufus and Henry secured the *marches* or frontiers by building castles; and the latter also tried the effect of planting a colony of foreigners. He placed Flemish settlers, a people at once brave and industrious, in the south of Pembrokeshire, where they grew rich by tilling the ground and manufacturing cloth, and held their own against all the efforts of the Welsh princes to turn them out.

5. **Succession of Matilda.**—Queen Matilda died in 1118, leaving two children,—the Ætheling *William*, and *Matilda*, married to the Emperor Henry V. In 1120 William, a youth of seventeen, was crossing from Normandy to England in a vessel called the "White Ship." He was attended by a train of wild young nobles; the crew had been freely supplied with wine; and the priests who came to bless the voyage were dismissed with jeers and laughter. Driven by fifty rowers, the vessel put to sea; but striking on a sunken rock, it filled and went down, one man only being saved. William, it is said, had put off from the sinking ship in a boat, when the shrieks of his half-sister, the Countess of Perche, moved him to row back to the wreck, where his boat was swamped by the multitude of people who leaped in, and all were drowned. As the King's second marriage with *Adeliza of Louvain* proved childless, he determined to settle the crown on his lately-widowed daughter Matilda. The barons were loth to consent, for it was not then the custom for women to rule; but they were obliged to yield, and all swore to accept Matilda as "*Lady*" over England and Normandy. Her father then, in 1127, married her, little to her liking, to *Geoffrey Plantagenet*, a lad about fourteen, eldest son of the *Count of Anjou*, whom Henry hoped thus to turn from a dangerous neighbour into a friend. Thrice over were oaths of fealty sworn to Matilda, and on the last occasion, to her infant son *Henry*, who was born in 1133.

6. **Death of Henry; his Government.**—King Henry, the only one of the Conqueror's sons who was born in England, died in Normandy, Dec. 1st, 1135, in consequence, it is said, of eating lampreys. The reign of Henry was a time of misery; his frequent wars caused England to be ground down under a burthensome taxation, while a succession of bad seasons added to the sufferings of the people. But they accounted Henry a good king, and stood loyally by him, recognizing him as their ally against the disorderly and oppressive barons; and they saw in him "the Lion of Justice" spoken of in the current prophecies attributed to the Welsh soothsayer Merlin. He improved the administration of government and justice, sending judges through the country to assess the taxes, and try criminals; he also granted charters to the towns. By severe punishment he put a stop to his followers' plundering, which had got to such a pitch that the people were wont to fly with their property to the woods as soon as they heard of their Sovereign's approach. Indeed his great merit was the rigorous justice he dealt out to thieves and robbers. Unfeeling and grasping as he was, he allowed no tyranny but his own; and under him there was order, though not freedom.

CHAPTER XII.

STEPHEN.

Confusion after Henry's death (1)—*election of Stephen of Blois* (2)—*Battle of the Standard* (3)—*disorderly state of the country; war of Stephen and Matilda; settlement of the succession; death of Stephen* (4).

1. **Stephen of Blois, 1135-1154. Confusion after Henry's death.**—As soon as Henry's iron

hand was removed, the order which he had enforced upon his subjects ceased. He had guarded the forests with jealous tyranny; now every one broke into the deer-parks and hunted down the game, so that in a few days there was hardly a beast of chase left in the country. But with his tyranny his good government came also to an end; and robbery, lawless violence, and private feuds broke out unchecked.

2. **Election of Stephen.**—*Stephen of Blois, Count of Mortain* and *Boulogne*, and son of Henry's sister Adela, came forward as a candidate for the crown, regardless of his oath to his cousin *the Empress*, as Matilda was commonly called. His easy manners and readiness to laugh and talk with the common people had made him popular; the citizens of London hailed him with joy, and he was elected King, and crowned at Westminster. The barons, who disliked Matilda, and still more her husband; easily reconciled their consciences to the breach of their oaths; and Stephen, having possessed himself of Henry's vast treasure, was able to buy support. He made large promises of good government which he did not keep, gave extravagant grants of Crown lands, and surrounded himself with foreign mercenaries —soldiers who hired themselves out to any prince who would pay them.

3. **Battle of the Standard.**—*David I., King of Scots*, Matilda's uncle, taking up her cause, made inroads upon England, once getting as far as Yorkshire. The wild Scots spread over the country, burning, desecrating, enslaving, and slaughtering, until, exhorted by the aged Archbishop Thurstan, the Yorkshire barons and people mustered against the invaders. The knights came with their men-at-arms, the husbandmen with their sons and servants, the parish priests brought up the fighting men of their flocks. The armies met, Aug. 22nd, 1138, on *Cowton Moor*, near Northallerton, where the English were

drawn up round their strange standard, a mast set on a waggon and crowned by a silver casket containing a consecrated wafer. Hence the ensuing combat, which ended in the utter rout of the Scots, was called "*The Battle of the Standard.*"

4. **War of Stephen and Matilda.**—Meanwhile Stephen, whose power of purchasing support was exhausted, could no longer control the barons. The clergy he set against him by rashly arresting the powerful Bishops of Salisbury and Lincoln, whom by threats and hard usage he forced to surrender their castles, among them that of Devizes, built by Bishop Roger of Salisbury, and said to be one of the finest in Europe. The country was already in utter disorder. *Robert of Caen, Earl of Gloucester*, the greatest man in England, had declared himself on the side of Matilda; and his partisans in Bristol robbed and plundered, seizing on men of wealth and carrying them off, blindfolded and gagged with sharp-toothed bits, to be starved and tortured for ransom. The highways were infested with thieves of gentle and peaceable appearance, who entered into courteous conversation with every one, until they could entrap some victim worth the seizing; and at last things came to such a pass that a wayfarer would fly as soon as he espied another on the road. The barons had been suffered unchecked to build themselves castles; and secure in these, which they garrisoned with savage ruffians, they were the worst robbers. Neither man nor woman who had any property was safe from them; they made the towns pay them taxes, and when they could give no more, they plundered and burned them. Even churches and churchyards were no longer respected by them. The land lay waste, for it was useless to till it; and matters kept growing worse and worse till men bitterly exclaimed that "Christ and His saints slept." This was the condition of England south of the Humber; it was better in the North, especially

beyond the Tees, where the land had rest under King David of Scotland, to whose son the Earldoms of Cumberland and Northumberland had been given by Stephen. The Empress landed in England in 1139, upon which civil war fairly broke out, and was carried on by both sides chiefly with mercenaries, while the barons fought and plundered on their own account. Early in 1141 Stephen, fighting till his sword and axe were broken, was taken prisoner at Lincoln, and sent to Bristol Castle; while Matilda, acknowledged as *Lady of the English*, entered London, where her imperious conduct so irritated the citizens that they soon drove her out. In the autumn Stephen was exchanged against the Earl of Gloucester, and the war being renewed, he besieged the Empress in Oxford Castle. The garrison being straitened for food, Matilda shortly before Christmas, 1142, made her escape. The ground being covered with snow, she one night wrapped herself in a white cloak so as not to attract attention, and attended by three knights she passed through the posts of the enemy, crossing the river on the ice, and reached Wallingford Castle in safety. Wearied out at last, in 1147 she left England, and about the same time Earl Robert died. The war dragged on until in 1153 the bishops brought about a peace, by which Stephen, who had recently lost his eldest son *Eustace*, was to keep the kingdom for his life, and was to be succeeded by *Henry*, the eldest son of Matilda and Geoffrey. The next year, Oct. 25th, 1154, Stephen died. His wife, *Matilda of Boulogne*, who had valiantly supported him in his warfare, had died two years earlier.

DOMINIONS OF THE HOUSE OF ANJOU.

Scale of Miles



Perth
Stirling
Edinburgh
Ulster
Con-naught
Dundalk
Dublin
Munster
Waterford
Irish Channel
NORTH SEA
English Channel
Flanders
Bruges
Boulogne
Laon
Rheims
Champagne
Paris
Troyes
Brest
Britanny
Rennes
Orleans
Blois
Nantes
Burgundy
Dijon
Bourges
Bay of Biscay
Toulouse
NAVARRE
ARAGON

Boundary of the French Kingdom

Dominions of the House of Anjou

Wagner & Debes' Geogl Estabt Leipzic.

London, Macmillan & Co.

CHAPTER XIII.

HENRY II.

Henry of Anjou (1)—*Thomas of London; Constitutions of Clarendon; flight, return, and murder of Thomas* (2)—*rebellion of Henry's sons; Henry's penance; capture of William the Lion* (3)—*further rebellions of Henry's sons; death of Henry; his government; trial by jury* (4)—*conquest of Ireland; Strongbow and his comrades; Henry acknowledged by the native chieftains; condition of the country* (5).

1. House of Anjou. Henry II., 1154-1189.—Even before he succeeded, at the age of twenty-one, to the English Crown, *Henry* was a powerful prince. He was a vassal of the King of France, but had got so many fiefs into his hands that he was stronger than his lord and all the other great vassals of the French Crown put together. *Anjou* and *Maine* he had from his father, *Normandy* from his mother, and the *County of Poitou* and *Duchies of Aquitaine* and *Gascony* he had gained by marrying their heiress *Eleanor* a few weeks after her divorce from *Louis VII.* of France. Energetic, hard-headed, and strong-willed, he was well fitted for the task of bringing England into order; and under the firm rule of a foreigner who had no national prejudices of his own, the distinction between Norman and Englishman faded away. He had been well educated, and took pleasure in the company of learned men; but his literary refinement had not taught him to curb his fierce temper, and in his fits of passion he behaved like a madman, striking and tearing at whatever came within his reach. He was a stout and strongly-built man, with close-cut reddish hair and prominent grey eyes; careless about dress, a

great hunter and hawker, and so active and restless that he hardly ever sat down except to meals. His private life was not creditable; his marriage, on his side one of policy, was unhappy; and the well-known tale of "Fair Rosamund," though a mere legend, preserves the name of one of his favourites. In spite of his faults, the country at once felt the benefit of his rule; the foreign mercenaries were sent off; all castles built since the death of Henry I. were razed; the barons were again brought under authority, and the Scots gave back the northern counties of England.

2. **The Constitutions of Clarendon.**—In 1162 Henry procured the election of his intimate friend, the Chancellor *Thomas Becket*, to the Archbishopric of Canterbury. Thomas was the son of a wealthy London citizen of Norman descent; and though an ecclesiastic, he, like many of his class in that age, busied himself wholly in secular matters. At the head of a body of knights equipped and maintained by himself, he served in one of his master's foreign wars, and displayed his prowess by unhorsing a French knight. At another time he went on an embassy to Paris, and dazzled the French by the splendour of his retinue—all at his own cost, for he had a large income from various preferments and offices, and spent it magnificently. As soon however as Thomas became Archbishop, he gave up his former pomp, resigned the Chancellorship, and led an austere life. Henry was offended, and the two were already at variance when they came to a downright quarrel on the subject of the Church courts. The Conqueror had made the Bishops hold courts of their own for the trial of cases in which *clerks* or ecclesiastics were concerned. Not merely those in holy orders, but all who had received the *tonsure*—that is, had had their heads shorn in the manner which distinguished the clergy from the laity—and discharged the smallest offices in the Church, were sent before the eccle-

siastical courts, which by the law of the Church could not inflict loss of life or limb; and thus thieves and murderers, if they could call themselves clergymen, got off comparatively easily, when, if they had been tried as laymen, blinding or hanging would have been their lot. Henry wished to bring the clergy under the criminal jurisdiction of the ordinary courts, and this Thomas strongly opposed; but the King to a great extent carried his point by means of "*the Constitutions of Clarendon*," so called because they were drawn up and confirmed in a great council of prelates and barons, held in January 1164 at the King's palace of *Clarendon* in Wiltshire. Thomas at first gave his assent to the Constitutions, but soon drew back, saying he had sinned in accepting them. At this Henry grew more angry than ever, till at last the Archbishop, declaring that his life was in danger, appealed to the Pope and fled to foreign parts. The quarrel, kept up for six years, was embittered in 1170 by a dispute about the coronation of the King's eldest son, whom he designed for his viceroy in England. No one but the Archbishop of Canterbury, so Thomas maintained, had a right to crown the King; but Henry nevertheless got Roger, Archbishop of York, to perform the ceremony. Through fear of the Pope's anger, and of King Louis VII. of France, who took up the exiled Archbishop's cause, Henry soon afterwards consented to a reconciliation, and Thomas returned amid the rejoicing of the people, who looked upon him as an oppressed man. Haughty and unyielding as ever, he despatched letters from the Pope, Alexander III., suspending the Archbishop of York from his office, and excommunicating two other Bishops. Henry flew into one of his fits of passion: "What cowards have I brought up in my court!" he exclaimed, "not one will deliver me from this low-born priest!" Four knights, taking him at his word, at once proceeded to Canterbury, and failing to frighten

the Archbishop into submission, slew him on the pavement of his own cathedral church, in which he had taken refuge, Dec. 29th, 1170. Henry, horror-struck at this result, cleared himself with the Pope by making oath that he had had no complicity in the murder, and by renouncing the Constitutions of Clarendon.

3. **Henry's Penance.**—Henry's life was clouded by quarrels with his sons, among whom he intended to divide his dominions at his death. Besides *Henry*, "*the Younger King*," who was to have England, Normandy, and Anjou, there was *Richard*, who had already received his mother's inheritance of Aquitaine and Poitou; and *Geoffrey*, for whom the King had obtained the succession to the Duchy of Britanny by betrothing him to its heiress *Constance*. There was also *John*, to provide for whom the King wanted the other sons to give up some castles out of their promised shares of his dominions. Young Henry refused, and the King's ill-wishers—Louis of France, and his own neglected wife Eleanor—stirred up the three elder youths to rebel against their father. Round the revolted sons there gathered in 1173 a strong league of discontented barons, English and foreign, aided by the Kings of France and Scotland. Thinking that these calamities were caused by the Divine wrath for the murder of *St. Thomas*, as the late Archbishop was styled, Henry did penance and let himself be scourged before the Saint's tomb. Soon he learned that on or about the day on which, having completed his penance, he had left Canterbury, the King of Scots, *William the Lion*, had been captured at Alnwick, July, 1174. By the King's own promptness and energy, and the fidelity of the people and of the new nobles whom he had raised up, the rebellion was soon brought to an end, and no one concerned met with hard usage except the King of Scots, who was constrained to enter into more complete and galling vassalage to England, even to admit English garrisons

into the castles of the Lowlands. He was however by Henry's successor permitted to buy back the rights he had lost, England only retaining a vague claim to lordship over Scotland.

4. **Death of Henry; his Government.**—In 1183 Henry's two elder sons were again at war with him; but that same year the Younger King, who was a mere tool of the discontented nobles, died, imploring his father's forgiveness. Geoffrey was pardoned, became again estranged, and died in 1186. Richard, after remaining faithful for some time, in 1188 sought the protection of *Philip Augustus*, King of France, and proceeded to invade his father's foreign dominions. Henry, whose health was failing, submitted, after a feeble resistance, to the demands of his enemies. He asked for a list of the barons who had joined Richard against him, and the first name he heard was that of his favourite son John. He turned his face to the wall—for he was lying down to rest—and groaned:—"Now," said he, "let all things go what way they may; I care no more for myself nor for the world." Already stricken with fever, he sank under this cruel blow, ever and anon crying, "Shame, shame on a conquered King," and died at Chinon, July 6, 1189. Historians often speak of him and the Kings of his line as the *Plantagenets*, the surname borne by his father—probably because his device was a sprig of *planta genista* or *broom*—and adopted in the fifteenth century by his descendants. Henry II. laid the foundations of good government in England, arranging the administration of justice, and taking pains to appoint faithful judges, who made circuits to assess the taxes, hear suits, and try criminals, as had been done before under Henry I. Trusting the people more than the barons, he re-organized the militia, and every freeman was bound to provide himself with arms according to his position. In foreign warfare Henry usually employed soldiers hired with

the produce of taxes, called *scutages*, levied on the feudal tenants in lieu of personal service. To Henry II. belongs the credit of having, not indeed created, but improved and extended the system out of which *trial by jury* grew. In cases of disputed possession of land, the possessor was allowed his choice between trial by battle, and the verdict of twelve knights of the neighbourhood, who had to declare on oath which of the litigants had the right to the land. These jurors were witnesses rather than judges; they swore to facts within their own knowledge; but in later days they gradually became, as now, judges of the fact, giving their verdict only after hearing evidence. The system was extended to criminal matters; a jury was employed to present reputed criminals to undergo the ordeal—the origin of our *grand juries*. After a while a petty jury was allowed to disprove the truth of the presentment; and upon the abolition of ordeal in the thirteenth century, that expedient came into general use.

5. **Conquest of Ireland.**—Early in his reign Henry had obtained authority to invade Ireland from Pope *Hadrian IV.*, or *Nicholas Brakespere*, noted as the only Englishman who has ever filled the Papal See. Nothing was done till 1169, when *Diarmaid of Leinster*, a fugitive Irish King, had obtained Henry's permission to enlist adventurers in his service. A ruined nobleman, *Richard of Clare, Earl of Pembroke*, surnamed "*Strongbow*," and two Norman gentlemen from Wales, *Robert Fitz-Stephen* and *Maurice Fitz-Gerald*, accepted Diarmaid's offers, and, raising an army, at first carried everything before them in Ireland. On Diarmaid's death, Strongbow, who had married his daughter *Eva*, assumed the royal authority in Leinster; but finding that he was not strong enough to make a lasting conquest, and that Henry grew jealous, he thought it best to agree to give up Dublin and the other fortified places of

Leinster to him, and hold his Irish lands as a vassal of the English Crown. Henry himself went over to Ireland in 1171; his sovereignty was generally acknowledged; and four years later a treaty was made by which *Roderick, King of Connaught*, the head King of Ireland, became his liegeman; but he could not keep any hold upon the country. Ireland, though supposed to be under English rule, remained for centuries in utter disorder, the battle-ground of Irish chiefs and Norman-English lords, who became as savage and lawless as those whom they had conquered.

CHAPTER XIV.

RICHARD I.

Richard Cœur de Lion; the Crusade (1)—*deposition of William Longchamp; treachery of John* (2)—*Richard taken by Leopold of Austria: transferred to the Emperor; ransomed* (3)—*death of Richard; Bertrand de Gurdon* (4)—*legendary reputation of Richard* (5).

1. **Richard I., surnamed Cœur de Lion, or Lion-Heart, 1189-1199.**—*Richard*, though born in England, had been educated to be Duke of Aquitaine, and it is doubtful whether he could speak a sentence in English. Having spent his youth in Southern Gaul, then the school of music and poetry, he had acquired its tastes, and had some skill in composing verses in its language. But his passion was for military glory, which his strength, valour, and talents well fitted him to win. He was a tall stout man, ruddy and brown-haired, and given to splendour and show in dress. Fierce and passionate, he yet was not without generous impulses; and after the fashion

of a Crusader, he was zealous for religion. For the English he cared little, except as they supplied him with money, and during his whole reign he was only twice in the country, for a few months at a time. After his coronation, Richard at once made ready for a Crusade in company with his friend Philip Augustus of France. About two years before his accession, Jerusalem, where the first Crusaders had founded a Christian kingdom, had been taken by *Saladin*, Sultan of Egypt and Syria, and the princes of Western Christendom for a moment laid aside their quarrels to go to its rescue. To raise money Richard sold honours, offices, Church lands, and to the King of Scots, release from all that Henry II. had imposed upon him :—" I would sell London if I could find a buyer," he said. At Midsummer 1190, Richard and Philip set out together for the Holy Land ; but before they got there, their friendship had cooled. Jealousies and quarrels ruined the Crusade; Philip soon went home to lay plans for possessing himself of Richard's continental dominions; the other crusading princes were disgusted with Richard's arrogance, and he with their lack of zeal. After many brilliant exploits, the King, weakened by fever, and knowing that his presence was needed at home, ended by making a truce with Saladin. His ill success had been great grief to him. The Crusaders had not ventured to attack Jerusalem, the object of their enterprise; and when—so ran a tale long repeated among the warriors of the Cross—Richard had come within sight of it, he had covered his eyes with his garment, praying God with tears not to let him look upon the Holy City, since he could not deliver it. Yet the Crusade had checked the progress of the great Saladin, and thus was not an utter failure.

2. **Deposition of the Chancellor Longchamp.**—During this reign, England was really ruled by the King's Justiciars. Of these, the Chancellor

William of Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, though a faithful servant to Richard, was disliked by the nobles, and filled with contempt for the English, whose language he would not or could not speak—for, upstart as the nobles called him, he prided himself upon his Norman blood. He was before long removed from the Justiciarship by a meeting of earls, barons, and London citizens; *Walter of Coutances, Archbishop of Rouen*, was appointed in his stead, and the King's brother John, who had put himself at the head of the movement against the Chancellor, was declared Regent and heir to the Crown. But the new Justiciar and the Queen-mother Eleanor, with good reason mistrusting John, prevented him from getting any real power; and in his vexation John began to give ear to the plots of Philip of France against the absent Richard, who set out for home in October, 1192. The next news of him was that he was a prisoner in Austria, and John, declaring that he was dead, laid claim to the crown.

3. **Captivity of Richard.**—The King, in his hurry to get home, had left his fleet, and gone on as a private traveller. Having been wrecked on the coast of the Hadriatic Sea, he made his way, in disguise, into Austria, where he was seized by *Leopold*, Duke of that country, who had been insulted by Richard during the Crusade. The Duke sold his captive to the *Emperor Henry VI.*, who, wishing to do Philip of France a pleasure, kept Richard closely guarded, and at one time, it is said, loaded with fetters. He was brought before a meeting of princes of the Empire, on various accusations, among them, that of having procured the assassination of a fellow Crusader, Conrad, Marquess of Montferrat; and although he cleared himself, the Emperor still insisted on so heavy a ransom that to raise it every Englishman had to give a fourth of his goods; even the church plate and jewels were taken to make up the sum. After more than a year's captivity, Richard was freed, in February 1194.

"Take care of yourself, for the devil is let loose," so Philip wrote to John, when he heard that the King and the Emperor were coming to terms; but Richard inflicted on the brother who had tried to bribe the Emperor to detain him in prison, no punishment beyond depriving him of his lands and castles. Even this penalty he soon so far remitted as to restore some of his estates, though he would not again trust him with castles.

4. **Death of Richard.**—The rest of Richard's life was chiefly spent in war against Philip Augustus. In April, 1199, the King perished in a petty quarrel with the *Viscount of Limoges*, one of his foreign barons, about a treasure which had been discovered on the estate of the latter. The Viscount yielded a part of the gold to his lord the King, but would not give up the whole. While besieging the Viscount's castle of Chalus-Chabrol, Richard was wounded in the shoulder by an arrow. The castle being stormed and taken, the King ordered all the garrison to be at once hanged, reserving only Bertrand de Gurdon, the crossbowman who had given him what proved to be his death-wound. Finding his end drawing near, he had Bertrand brought before him. "What harm have I done to thee, that thou hast killed me?" The young archer, answering that his father and two brothers had fallen by Richard's hand, bade the King take what revenge he would. "I forgive thee my death," said Richard, and he ordered his release. Nevertheless, when the King was no more, Marcadeus, the captain of his mercenaries, had the crossbowman put to a cruel death. Early in his reign Richard had married *Berengaria of Navarre*, but had no children.

5. **Legendary reputation of Richard.**—Legends soon gathered round the striking figure of Cœur de Lion, and he became a hero of romance. His surname probably suggested the tale of his having while in prison torn out with his hands the heart of a

lion sent to slay him; another and a more touching story of his captivity tells how his faithful minstrel Blondel wandered seeking him, and discovered him by means of a song. Little as he had done for England, he came to be looked on as a national hero; while among the Mohammedans his prowess was remembered in common phrases. "Hush ye, here is King Richard!" the mother would say to her crying child; and the Arab would exclaim to his starting horse, "Dost think it is King Richard?"

CHAPTER XV.

JOHN.

Election of John; Arthur of Britanny; forfeiture of the French fiefs (1)—*quarrel between John and the Pope; sentence of deposition; John becomes a vassal and tributary of Rome* (2)—"*The Army of God and of Holy Church*"; *the Great Charter* (3)—*war between John and the Barons; the crown offered to Louis of France* (4)—*John's death; his children* (5).

1. **John, surnamed Sansterre or Lackland, 1199-1216.**—In England *John* was chosen King; but in Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, the barons desired for their ruler young *Arthur of Britanny*, son of John's elder brother Geoffrey; and Philip of France, for his own purposes, took up the lad's cause. A victory before *Mirebeau* in Poitou threw into John's power Arthur, together with many of his partisans, some of whom were starved to death in prison. It was believed that the King ordered his nephew's eyes to be put out, but that the youth's keeper, *Hubert of Burgh*, would not carry out the sentence. However this may

have been, Arthur disappeared after some months' captivity, and rumour accused his uncle of having stabbed him with his own hand. John was summoned by Philip to clear himself before the French Peers, and on his non-appearance he was adjudged to have forfeited his fiefs. Philip speedily made himself master of Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, and eventually of great part of Eleanor's inheritance; but the *Channel Islands*, fragments of the Norman Duchy, together with *Gascony* and part of *Aquitaine*, were left to the English King. To our country these losses proved a gain. Our sovereigns gradually became Englishmen, instead of being merely French princes holding England.

2. **The Interdict.**—In 1205 John embroiled himself with Pope *Innocent III.*, the dispute arising on the question whether the monks of Christ Church, Canterbury, had the sole right of electing the Archbishop, or whether the bishops of the province had a voice in the matter. The Pope decided for the monks, who on his recommendation elected *Stephen Langton*, an Englishman then in Rome, and the first scholar of the day. This enraged John, who had named another man for the place; and as he refused to receive Stephen as Archbishop, Innocent laid the kingdom under an *interdict*. That is, the churches were closed, and the Sacraments no longer administered, except to infants and the dying; marriages took place only in the church porch: and the dead were buried silently and in unconsecrated ground. At first John was defiant. He confiscated the estates of the clergy who observed the interdict, and often let outrages upon them pass unpunished. There is a story that a man who had robbed and murdered a priest was brought before the King:—"He has killed my enemy," quoth John, "loose him and let him go." As John, though excommunicated, would not give way, Innocent declared him deposed from his throne, committed the execution of the sentence to Philip of

France, and called on all Christian nobles and knights to join in a holy war against the English King. Under this sentence, which Philip was preparing to carry out, John's courage failed him. His oppressive taxes, his harsh enforcement of the Forest laws, above all, his intolerable cruelty and licentiousness, had set high and low against him, and he could not count upon the support of his subjects. One *Peter*, a hermit of Yorkshire, foretold that when the next Ascension-day should be passed John would have ceased to reign; and in superstitious terror, the King not only admitted Stephen to the Archbishopric, but also by charter granted to the Pope the Kingdoms of England and Ireland to be henceforth held by John and his heirs by a yearly tribute. On the 15th May, 1213, in the Templars' Church near Dover, he placed this charter in the hands of the Pope's envoy, the subdeacon Pandulf, and swore fealty to Innocent. In a week the Feast of the Ascension passed, and John had the hermit hanged for a false prophet. But people murmured that Peter had spoken true; John was no longer a sovereign, but a vassal.

3. **Magna Carta.**—The Barons were now resolved to put a check upon John's tyranny; and in spite of the royal friendship with Rome, Archbishop Stephen and the English Church gave their aid to the cause of freedom. In a private meeting of the Barons at St. Paul's Church, Aug. 25th, 1213, Langton brought forth the almost forgotten Charter of Henry I., which was heard with great joy by all present, who saw in it a precedent for the reforms they desired. Nothing however was done till the next year, in the autumn of which the confederate Barons took an oath upon the altar at St. Edmundsbury to withdraw their allegiance, if John should refuse their demands. At Eastertide, 1215, they assembled their forces. In his passion the King swore that he would never grant them liberties which would make him a slave; but when the con-

federates—"*the Army of God and of Holy Church*"—marched under *Robert Fitz-Walter* upon London, and were willingly admitted, he was brought to submit. At *Runnymede*, a meadow near Windsor, on June 15th, 1215, the King met the Barons, and sealed the Charter which embodied their demands. Thus was won *Magna Carta*, the *Great Charter*, held sacred to this day as the foundation of our liberties. Yet it was no new law, but rather a correction of abuses. The first clause secured the liberties of the English Church; others were framed for removing the grievances of the Barons as tenants of the Crown. No *scutage* or *aid* (assistance in money from a vassal to his lord) was to be levied without the consent of a national council of prelates, earls, barons, and the King's tenants generally, except for three specified purposes. (These were, to ransom the King from captivity, to provide for the expenses of making his eldest son a knight, or of giving his eldest daughter in marriage.) But, to their honour, the patriot nobles did not take thought for themselves alone. The Charter provided that the rights they claimed should be extended by them to their own vassals. The "liberties and free customs" of London and other towns were secured. Protection was given against oppressions arising from process for debts or services due to the Crown; against unreasonable *amercements* (fines); and the abuses of the prerogative of *purveyance* and *pre-emption*—that is, the right claimed by the Crown of buying provisions at its own valuation, and of impressing carriages for its service. No man was to be so heavily *amerced* as to take away his means of living—to the landholder was to be left his land, to the merchant his merchandise, to the *villain* his team and instruments of husbandry—and the penalty was to be fixed by a jury of the neighbourhood. The royal officers were to pay for the provisions they took, and not to make use of the horses and carts of the freeman without his consent. The King should

no longer make money out of the proceedings in courts of law: "To no man will we sell," so runs the clause, "to no man will we deny, or delay, right or justice." Trade was encouraged by the promise that merchants should safely enter, leave, and pass through England without paying exorbitant customs. Above all, the liberty of the subject was secured. "No freeman" was to be "taken, or imprisoned, or disseized [dispossessed], or outlawed, or exiled, or in any way destroyed . . . . except by lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." Twenty-five barons were nominated to see that the Great Charter was duly carried out, and were authorized to seize on the royal castles and lands if the King should fail to do his part.

4. **War between John and the Barons.**—After the assembly had broken up, John burst into a rage, and began to devise means of revenge. He implored the aid of his lord the Pope, who thereupon annulled the Charter, that is, declared it to be of none effect; telling the Barons that if they would submit, he would see that they were not oppressed. But rebuke, excommunication, the laying of London under an interdict, failed to daunt the Barons, who are said to have applied to the Pope the words of Isaiah, "Woe unto them which justify the wicked!" Langton would not publish the excommunication, and was in consequence suspended by Pandulf from the exercise of his functions as Archbishop. John also secured the more potent aid of a host of foreign mercenaries—savage freebooters trained to slaughter and spoil—while the baronial party took the desperate step of offering the crown to *Louis*, eldest son of Philip of France. At first the fortune of war favoured John, who, in order to punish the northern barons and their ally, young *Alexander II., King of Scots*, marched northwards, ravaging as he went, as far as Berwick, then a Scottish town. "Thus," he cried,

alluding to the colour of Alexander's hair, "will we chase the red fox-cub from his earths,"—and he gave, it is said, the signal for the destruction of Berwick by firing with his own hands the house in which he had rested during the night. At last, in May, 1216, Louis came over with a French army, and was well supported. But when the Barons found the foreign prince granting lands and castles to his own countrymen, they grew suspicious of him, and some began to think of returning to their allegiance.

5. **Death of John.**—While John was crossing with his army the Wash of Lincolnshire, his baggage and treasures were swallowed by the rising tide. Vexation, coupled with a surfeit of peaches and cider—or, according to a later tradition, poison administered by a monk—threw him into a fever, of which he died at Newark, Oct. 19th, 1216, leaving an evil name behind him. He was the first Sovereign whose title appears on his Great Seal as *King of England*. By his second wife, *Isabel of Angoulême*, he had two sons—*Henry*, who succeeded him, and *Richard*, *Earl of Cornwall*, who, in 1257, was, by some of the German princes, elected *King of the Romans* (the title borne by the German King before his coronation as Emperor).

CHAPTER XVI.

HENRY III.

Henry of Winchester; departure of Louis (1)—*Hubert of Burgh; marriage of Henry; the favourites; character of Henry; the Londoners* (2)—*the Provisions of Oxford* (3)—*the Barons' War* (4)—*Earl Simon's Parliament* (5)—*battle of Evesham and death of Simon; the Disinherited* (6)—*death of Henry* (7)—*Magna Carta* (8)—*the Universities* (9)—*Gothic architecture* (10).

1. Henry III., of Winchester, 1216-1272.—On the tenth day after John's death, the Royalists crowned at Gloucester his eldest son *Henry*, then only nine years old. A plain circlet of gold was placed on the child's head, for the crown had been lost with the rest of the royal treasures. *William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke*, a wise and good statesman, was made "Governor of the King and Kingdom." Many barons now left the French standard; and two battles put an end to the hopes of Louis. The first, fought in May 1217, in the streets of Lincoln, between the Earl of Pembroke and the French Count of Perche, was jestingly termed by the victorious Royalists "*the Fair of Lincoln.*" The second was a sea-fight between the Justiciar *Hubert of Burgh*, and a noted pirate, Eustace the Monk, who was bringing a French fleet to the relief of Louis. Hubert, who held Dover Castle, could get together only forty sail, to oppose to more than eighty of the enemy, and his case seemed so desperate that several knights would not accompany him. But his courage was rewarded, for the English, fearlessly boarding the enemy's ships and cutting the rigging, gained a complete victory. After this Louis was glad to make peace and go home. King Alexander of Scotland and the North-Welsh prince *Llywelyn*, son of Jorwerth, acknowledged the young Sovereign, who now reigned undisputed.

2. Character of Henry.—The history of Henry's reign is for a long time that of a struggle against foreign influence. The adventurers who had been in John's service exercised great power, until they were got rid of by Hubert of Burgh, who, after the Earl of Pembroke's death, took a leading part in the government. When Hubert in 1232 lost the King's favour, the *Bishop of Winchester, Peter des Roches*, a native of Poitou, came into power, and with him a new set of foreigners, who were not removed until some of the Barons had taken up arms against the King. Then,

at the age of twenty-nine, Henry married *Eleanor*, daughter of Raymond, Count of Provence. She was beautiful and accomplished, but was disliked on account of the favours lavished on her kindred, who looked upon England as a mine of wealth, out of which they were to get as much as they could. After these, there came the King's foreign kinsfolk, the sons of his mother by her second marriage. Insolent and masterful in their prosperity, the favourites met every complaint of the English with the reply, "We have nothing to do with the law of the land." Though the King had no positive vices, he was weak, vain, and ostentatiously liberal, and consequently always poor and greedy for money. On the birth of his first son *Edward*, he sought after gifts with such eagerness that a Norman said, "Heaven gave us this child, but the King sells him to us." The rich London citizens complained of the heavy *tallages* laid upon them. "Those ill-bred Londoners," as Henry once called them, were no friends of the Court, and their mutual dislike often broke out. One day the young men of the City were playing at the *quintain*, a game which exercised the man-at-arms in managing his horse and lance, when some of the royal attendants and pages insulted the citizens, calling them "scurvy clowns and soap-makers," and entered the lists to oppose them. The young Londoners had the satisfaction of beating their courtly antagonists "black and blue," but the City paid for it in a heavy fine imposed by the King.

3. **The Provisions of Oxford.**—The Popes claimed the right to tax the clergy, upon whom they made almost yearly demands, which were complained of as much as the royal exactions. They were further answerable for leading Henry into his most signal act of folly, by offering to his second son *Edmund* the crown of Sicily, or rather the empty title, for the actual kingdom could only be gained by war, the expenses of

which Henry pledged England to repay. Aghast at finding how enormous was the sum to which they were committed, the Barons in 1258 compelled Henry to agree that twenty-four persons should be chosen, half by him, half by themselves, to reform the government. These twenty-four were appointed in a *Parliament*, as the national council of barons and bishops was now called, held at Oxford,—the "Mad Parliament," Henry's friends named it. By this committee were drawn up "*the Provisions of Oxford*," under which the royal authority was in fact placed in the hands of a council of fifteen. The King's foreign kinsmen and favourites had to surrender the royal castles they held; upon which they left the country, carrying with them only a small part of the treasure they had amassed. But the new government did not long work smoothly. The Barons quarrelled among themselves, and Henry took advantage of this to try to get back his authority.

4. **The Barons' War.**—This ended in a war between the King and the malcontent Barons, the latter being headed by the most able man of their party, *Simon of Montfort*, a Frenchman who had obtained the Earldom of Leicester, upon which his family had a claim, had married the King's sister Eleanor, and had become a thorough Englishman. He was a brave and devout man, somewhat hot-tempered and impatient of opposition, but bearing a high reputation for skill in war and statesmanship. The unstable King, who had been the making of him, soon fell out with him; and since 1258 Simon had stood forth as the leader of the party of reform. His strength lay not so much in the nobles, who did not thoroughly trust him, as in the clergy, the Universities, the people generally, and especially the Londoners, who showed their dislike of the royal family in a manner which did them no credit. On the first breaking out of war, the Queen attempted to

pass by water from the Tower to Windsor Castle; but as soon as her barge approached the bridge, the Londoners assailed her with abuse, threw down mud upon her, and by preparing to sink her boat forced her to return. The battle of *Lewes*, May 14, 1264, put an end for the time to the war. The action was begun by the King's son Edward, who charged the Londoners in the baronial army with such vigour as to send them flying in utter rout; but his eagerness to avenge his mother led him to chase them four miles, and while he was slaughtering fugitives, his own friends were defeated by Simon. King Henry, who had defended himself gallantly, had no choice but to surrender; while his brother the King of the Romans was captured in a windmill, to the great glee of his adversaries, whose mocking song, how "the King of Alemaigne" "made him a castle of a mill," has come down to us. The next day a treaty, the "*Mise of Lewes*," was concluded, under which Edward was given as a hostage to the conquerors. Though orders and writs continued to run in the royal name, and the King was treated with respect, he became no better than a prisoner to Earl Simon. In vain the Papal legate, Guy Foulquois, threatened the baronial party with excommunication: as soon as the Bulls (writings sealed with the Pope's *bulla* or seal) containing the sentence arrived, the Dover men threw them into the sea.

5. **Earl Simon's Parliament.**—The most famous act of Earl Simon during his rule was the summoning, in Henry's name, of the first *Parliament* to which representatives of the borough towns were called. The Great Council of the realm, the assembly of the King's tenants, was already known by the French or Italian name of *Parliament;* but Simon was the first to show how it might be made what we understand by that name, an assembly representing every class of freemen. Its materials he found ready to his hand.

The greater Barons, out of whom in later days our *House of Lords* or *Peers* was formed, came, as they still do, in person to the national council; and as the smaller tenants of the Crown or freeholders were too numerous to do likewise, a few of their number had occasionally been summoned to act for them—so many knights from each county. This was the origin of our county members, who still are called *Knights of the Shire*. But a House of knights alone would have been a poor representation of the whole people. Simon brought the towns also into the national assembly, making not only each county send two knights, but each *city* and *borough* send two of their *citizens* or *burgesses*. It was not however till thirty years later that representatives of the towns began to be regularly and continuously summoned to Parliament, forming, together with the knights, our *House of Commons*. Simon's Parliament, which met Jan. 20, 1265, was not what would be called a full and free Parliament. The number of earls and barons was small, Simon having summoned only those who supported him; on the other hand there was a large body of clergy, as among that class he had many friends.

6. **Battle of Evesham.**—Earl Simon "*the Righteous*," as he was called, did not keep his power much longer. His sons gave offence by their haughtiness and ill-conduct, and one of the foremost of the Barons, *Gilbert of Clare, Earl of Gloucester*, entered into league with the Royalist Mortimers, one of the great families on the Welsh marches. Hoping to bring about Edward's escape, his friends sent him a fleet horse, upon which, having craftily got leave for a race or trial of horses, he galloped away from his escort, bidding them farewell with sarcastic courtesy. Fortune now turned against the Earl of Leicester, whose plans were defeated by his son Simon allowing himself to be surprised by Edward and the Earl of

Gloucester at Kenilworth. Edward and Gloucester then advanced against the elder Simon at *Evesham*, Aug. 4, 1265, and, by displaying in their van the banners they had won at Kenilworth, deluded their adversaries into taking the approaching force for that of young Simon. When the ensigns of the Royalist leaders at length appeared, the elder Simon saw that he was outnumbered and outgeneralled. "They come up in skilful fashion, but they have learned that ordering from me, not of themselves," said the veteran warrior; "now let us commend our souls to God, for our bodies are theirs." King Henry, being forced to appear in the baronial ranks, ran no small risk, until the fall of his helmet revealed him to the too zealous friends who were attacking him. Earl Simon, unhorsed and hemmed in by foes, fought on valiantly, till a blow from behind ended his life. His body was brutally mangled by the Royalists, but some relics of the corpse were buried by the friendly monks of Evesham; and the clergy and people in general honoured him as a martyr. This victory restored Henry to power, although "*the Disinherited*"—that is, Simon's adherents and their sons, whose estates were confiscated—kept up a fierce plundering warfare for two years longer. In the end they were allowed to redeem their estates, though this advantage was not extended to the Montfort family. Among the last to yield was the North-Welsh prince, *Llywelyn*, son of Gruffydd, who had been in alliance with Earl Simon, and whose submission was soothed by the title of *Prince of Wales*.

7. **Death of Henry.**—The land being now at peace, Edward and Edmund set off upon what proved to be the last Crusade; and during their absence King Henry died, Nov. 16, 1272. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, which he had begun to rebuild; and ere his sepulchre was closed, the Earl of Gloucester, laying his hand on the corpse, swore fealty to the absent Edward, who was at once proclaimed King.

8. **Magna Carta.**—The Great Charter, with the omission of the clauses touching taxation and the national council, and with some other alterations, was thrice re-issued in this reign: first, on the accession of Henry; secondly, after the departure of Louis, when a *Charter of the Forest* was added, which declared that no man should lose life or limb for taking the King's game; thirdly, in 1225, being the condition upon which Henry obtained a grant of money from the national council. In this last form it was afterwards confirmed more than thirty times. The proverbial phrase, *Nolumus leges Angliæ mutare*, (We will not change the laws of England,) dates from this reign, it having been the answer of the earls and barons in council at Merton in 1236, when urged by the bishops to bring the law of inheritance into accordance with the ecclesiastical law.

9. **The Universities.**—The English *Universities*, which began to be of importance in the time of Henry, had arisen in the twelfth century, being at first gatherings of independent masters and scholars, not attached to any great ecclesiastical foundation, and not as yet formed into endowed societies. The first of these settlements of students was at *Oxford*, which was then one of the chief towns of England, a strong military post, and a place in which great national assemblies were often held. There in 1133, a Breton, *Robert Pulan*, first began to lecture on divinity, and in 1149, *Vacarius*, a Lombard, began to teach the Roman law. By the close of the thirteenth century, Oxford ranked as one of the greatest schools of the Western world. *Cambridge* also became the seat of an University, but of its early history hardly anything is known. Incorporated and endowed colleges within the Universities were first founded in the thirteenth century.

10. **Gothic Architecture.**—In the last years of the twelfth century arose the Pointed or *Gothic* style

of architecture, which flourished until the introduction of the Italian style in the sixteenth century. When it had gone out of fashion, and its beauties were not appreciated, the name of *Gothic*, which had the sense of *barbarous*, was fixed upon it in scorn. It is also called *pointed*, because its leading feature is the pointed arch. Salisbury Cathedral is a good specimen of early Gothic; and the Eleanor Crosses, and the nave of York Minster, of that which prevailed under the first three Edwards. The naves of Winchester and Canterbury Cathedrals represent the form intermediate between York nave and the latest Gothic, of which the chapels of St. George at Windsor and of Henry VII. at Westminster are examples.

CHAPTER XVII.

EDWARD I.

Edward I. (1)—*war with Prince Llywelyn; death of Llywelyn and of David; creation of the Prince of Wales; Wales annexed to England* (2)—*competitors for the Scottish Crown; decision of Edward; conquest of Scotland; deposition of Balliol; Stone of Scone* (3) *William Wallace; second conquest of Scotland; murder of Comyn; Bruce crowned King of Scots; death of Edward* (4)—*family of Edward* (5)—*legislation; Parliament; Confirmation of the Charters; parliamentary taxation* (6)—*expulsion of the Jews* (7).

1. Edward, First from the Norman Conquest, surnamed Longshanks, 1272-1307.—*Edward*, the first English prince after the Norman Conquest who was an Englishman at heart, was strong and tall, towering by head and shoulders above the

crowd, a good horseman, a keen hunter, and noted for his skill in knightly exercises. His credit as a Crusader was heightened by his having narrowly escaped with his life from the poisoned dagger of a Mohammedan assassin. The touching story that his wife, *Eleanor of Castile*, at her own peril sucked the venom from his wound, is but a romance; for in truth Edward's fortitude was put to the test of having the poisoned flesh cut out. He could hold his own in hand-to-hand fight, was a skilful general, and never grudged taking his share of the hardships of war. During a campaign in Wales, when he and some of his men ran short of provisions, he refused to have the small supply of wine reserved for himself. "In time of need all things ought to be in common," he said, "I, who am the cause of your being in this strait, will fare no better than you." Besides being a good soldier, he was a great statesman and ruler. Loving power, he was loth to give it up, but he knew when to yield; his chief fault was a disposition to strain his legal rights, and keep to the letter of the law rather than to its spirit.

2. **Conquest of Wales.**—Upon Edward's accession, Llywelyn, Prince of Wales, was called upon to do homage. This he persistently evaded, till he was at length declared a rebel, and was soon brought by force of arms to submit. For some years there was peace, though both prince and people still hoped to win their independence. Resistance was first made by the very man from whom Edward could least have expected it, *Dafydd* or *David*, who had fought on the English side against his brother Llywelyn, and had been favoured and enriched by Edward. He raised in 1282 a formidable insurrection; but after Llywelyn had fallen in a chance encounter with an English knight, the Welsh chieftains yielded, and David, being delivered up by his own countrymen, was put to death as a traitor and a murderer, Sept. 20, 1283. Llywelyn's head, encircled with a wreath of silver ivy-leaves,

was set over the Tower, in mockery of a prophecy that the Prince of Wales should be crowned in London. The King's son *Edward* was born April 25, 1284, at Caernarvon, and sixteen years later was created *Prince of Wales*, a title which thenceforth was usually conferred on the Sovereign's eldest son. The legend that the King promised to give the Welsh a native prince who could not speak a word of English, and that he then presented to them his infant son, rests on no good authority. Another story, that the King, finding that the native *bards* or poets kept alive the memories of the ancient glories of Wales, had them all massacred, is a fiction only worthy of notice because it has been made famous by the poet Gray. Wales, though after Llywelyn's fall it was annexed to England, was still in many respects a separate country, and the *marches* remained as before under the sway of the "*Lords Marchers*," English nobles holding feudal lordships within which they exercised almost sovereign jurisdiction.

3. **Conquest of Scotland.**—The *Scots*, under which name were now included all the people north of Tweed and Solway, whether Gaelic-speaking Celts of the Highlands or English-speaking Teutons of the Lowlands, were without a King; the last of their old Celtic line of princes was dead, and there was a crowd of claimants to the throne. Of these the foremost were *John Balliol, Lord of Galloway*, and *Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale*, noblemen of Norman origin, holding lands both in England and Scotland, who rested their claim upon their descent from nieces of William the Lion. Neither had much right to be called a Scot—indeed, most of the Scottish nobles were descended from Normans who had found favour with the Scottish Kings, and often had more interest in England than in Scotland. The English King was called in to decide, and accordingly in 1291 he held an assembly of Scots and Englishmen at *Nor-*

ham. He began by demanding that the Scots should acknowledge him as their feudal Superior or Overlord —an ancient claim of the English Kings, but one which the Scottish Kings had been disposed to evade or deny. Now however the Scottish nobles and prelates, who probably did not care to argue the point with so powerful and warlike a prince as Edward, found nothing to say against it. After due enquiry, Edward gave judgment in favour of Balliol, whose fealty and homage for the realm of Scotland he then received. But the new King and his barons, disliking their position as vassals, took advantage in 1295 of a quarrel between France and England, to ally themselves with France and go to war with England. In this they were worsted; and Balliol being compelled to give up the crown in 1296, Edward took possession of Scotland as a fief forfeited by the treason of its holder, received the homage of the Scottish nobles and prelates, and filled the highest offices in the country with Englishmen, *John, Earl of Warrenne and Surrey*, being appointed *Guardian*. Edward carried away the Scottish crown jewels, and with them a relic whose loss was deeply felt. At *Scone* there was a fragment of rock on which the Scots King was wont to be placed at his coronation. It had been, so legend said, the pillow of Jacob at Bethel; and where that fated stone was, there the Scots should reign. The conqueror placed it, enclosed in a throne, in Westminster Abbey, where the stone and chair still remain, and upon them every King of England has since been crowned.

4. **Wallace and Bruce.**—Edward was not a harsh conqueror, but Southern domination was hateful to the people of the Lowlands. It was from these, men of English speech and for the most part of English blood, and not from the Celtic Scots of the North, to whom the change of rule made little difference, that the resistance to the English King came. The presence of Edward's garrisons, the unwonted

taxes imposed to provide for the maintenance of order in the half-subdued land, soon aroused opposition. *William Wallace*, a Clydesdale man, who made himself a name as a chief of outlaws, headed the popular movement. Mustering the people of the Lowlands north of Tay, he defeated near *Stirling* an English army led by Earl Warrenne; and after having ravaged Northumberland and Cumberland, he became ruler of Scotland under the title of *Guardian of the Kingdom*. His fall was as rapid as his rise. Edward routed the insurgents at *Falkirk*, July 22, 1298, after which Wallace resigned the Guardianship, and eventually sank back into his outlaw's life. The Scottish nobles kept up the war some years longer, but were again obliged to yield. Wallace was required to surrender to the King's mercy. This he feared or disdained to do; and being captured, he was brought to London and hanged at Tyburn, Aug. 23, 1305, winning by his death his place as the national hero of Scotland. What he had failed to achieve was brought about by *Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick*, grandson of that Bruce who had claimed the throne. Early in 1306, this young Bruce had an interview in the Grey Friars' Church at Dumfries with *John Comyn of Badenoch*, who, after the line of Balliol, was the nearest heir to the Scottish throne. Rumour said that Bruce urged Comyn to join in an attempt to restore the kingdom, and that Comyn hung back. Anyhow the end of it was that Bruce stabbed Comyn, leaving him wounded in the church, where he was despatched by one of Bruce's followers. Bruce had now no chance of safety but in playing the boldest game. Summoning the Scots to his standard, he had himself crowned King at Scone. Edward's deepest anger was roused by this sacrilegious murder, which he solemnly vowed to avenge. Being in feeble health, he could only move northwards by easy stages, but he sent in advance his son Edward, who began so ruthlessly to waste

the Scottish country that his father had to check his cruelty. Bruce, with his followers, was hunted about from place to place, but he gained some small success, sufficient to irritate Edward, who thereupon advanced from Carlisle as soon as he felt his health would permit. But the mere exertion of mounting his horse proved almost too much for him, and in the next four days he could only move six miles, reaching Burgh-on-the-Sands, where, within sight of Scotland, he died, July 7, 1307.

5. **Family of Edward.**— Edward's first wife, Eleanor, died in 1290, in Lincolnshire, and wherever her corpse rested on its way to Westminster a cross was raised to her memory. "We loved her tenderly in her life-time; we do not cease to love her in death," said the King, when asking the Abbot of Cluny to intercede for her soul. Of Eleanor's four sons, three died in childhood; the youngest, *Edward*, succeeded his father. The King's second wife was *Margaret*, sister of *Philip IV., the Fair*, of France. Her sons were *Thomas of Brotherton, Earl of Norfolk*, and *Edmund of Woodstock, Earl of Kent.*

6. **Legislation.**—Notwithstanding that Simon of Montfort had been Edward's foe, his system of parliamentary representation was in its main lines adopted and established by Edward, and has endured to this day. In the earlier part of Edward's reign the presence of representatives of the shires and towns was still not thought necessary to a Parliament; but the year 1295 saw the first summons of a true Parliament, which served as a model for future assemblies of the nation. There were the Earls and great Barons, the Archbishops, Bishops, and Abbots, summoned severally in person by the King's special writ; and the Commons summoned by writs addressed to the sheriffs, bidding them send up two elected knights from each shire, two citizens from each city, and two burgesses from each borough. Representatives of the

clergy were also summoned, so that the Parliament was an assembly of the *Three Estates* (classes or orders) of the Realm—*Clergy*, *Lords*, and *Commons*. As however the lower clergy did not care about sitting in Parliament, preferring to vote their taxes in their own meetings or *convocations*, in practice the English Parliament has for long consisted of only two Estates, *Lords* or *Peers*, and *Commons*, who sit apart in two Houses—a division which was not made till after Edward's time. The *House of Lords* was made up of those great nobles and prelates who were specially summoned to Parliament, the right to be so summoned descending, in the case of the lay lords, from father to son; the elected representatives formed the *House of Commons*. As the lesser barons were not summoned to Parliament, they passed into the mass of commoners. Edward and his Parliaments made a number of useful laws; but the chief reform of the reign was won much against the King's will and almost by force. *Roger Bigod, Earl of Norfolk*, and *Humfrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford*, in 1297 made a determined stand against the King's levying money and provisions on his sole authority, which he had been led to do under the pressure of the French and Scottish war. The two Earls obtained from him the *Confirmation of the Charters*, with the important addition that he should not make such exactions or impose such taxes without "the common assent of the realm." Thus was established the principle that the nation cannot be taxed except by its consent given in Parliament. The words used were not so precise as to prevent all evasion, and the kings soon found out ways of raising money without consulting Parliament; but it was always felt that to do so was contrary to the spirit of the constitution.

7. Expulsion of the Jews.—The *Jews* were hateful to the people, both because they were not

Christians, and because they were usurers. They alone could lend money on interest, for the Scriptures were thought to forbid that practice to Christians, and thereby they made enormous profits. They were accused of horrible crimes, and were often subjected to great cruelties by the fierce and ignorant people among whom they lived; but hated as they were, they yet grew rich under the protection of the Sovereign, whose slaves and chattels the law accounted them. As he could tax them at his pleasure, it was his interest to protect them and to give every encouragement to their trade. But at last, in 1290, Edward, being unable to withstand the popular feeling against them, after a vain attempt to convert them to Christianity, ordered them all, on pain of death, to quit the kingdom, allowing them however to carry away their money and goods. Harsh as this order was, it is fair to Edward to consider that by it he sacrificed a source of revenue to the wishes of his people.

CHAPTER XVIII.

EDWARD II.

Edward II.; Piers Gaveston (1)—*marriage and coronation of Edward; general enmity against Piers; the Ordainers; death of Piers* (2)—*battle of Bannockburn* (3)—*the Scots in Ireland* (4)—*the Despensers; beheading of the Earl of Lancaster* (5)—*invasion of Isabel and Mortimer; execution of the Despensers; deposition of Edward* (6)—*murder of Edward* (7)—*suppression of the Knights Templars* (8).

1. **Edward II., of Caernarvon, 1307–1327.**—The young King already had a favourite, *Piers* or

Peter of Gaveston, son of a Gascon gentleman. Edward I. had chosen him to be his son's companion in boyhood—a choice he had cause to rue, for Piers led the Prince of Wales into wild and lawless courses, which the elder Edward tried in vain to restrain. Once indeed he imprisoned his son for breaking the park and destroying the deer of the Treasurer, Walter of Langton, Bishop of Chester; and some months before the old King's death Piers was banished. Among the injunctions laid upon his son by the dying Edward, one was that he should never recall Gaveston without consent of Parliament; another was that he should go on with the Scottish war. But his commands were set at nought. The new King soon gave up the Scottish expedition and hastened to recall Piers, whom he loaded with riches and honours, and left as Regent during his own absence in France for his marriage.

2. **General Enmity against Gaveston.**—At Boulogne, early in 1308, the King married *Isabel*, daughter of Philip the Fair of France. On his return he was met by the Regent and the English barons. The disgust of these latter was great when they saw the King, without noticing anyone else, throw himself into his favourite's arms and call him brother. When at the coronation the place of honour was given to Piers, the irritation was increased, and the barons soon began to demand his banishment. Edward, reluctantly yielding, appointed Piers to the government of Ireland, where he seems to have shown courage and ability. Want of money obliged the King to summon a Parliament, from which, though not till after he had given a favourable answer to its petition for redress of certain grievances, he obtained the needed supply. He also prevailed on the nobles to consent that Piers, whom he had again recalled, might remain with him, "provided he should demear himself properly." Piers however was far from demean

ing himself properly in the eyes of the nobles. When he was at court nothing went on but dancing, feasting, and merry-making; and their feelings were further embittered by the contemptuous nicknames he bestowed upon them. Discontent again showed itself, and in 1310 Edward was obliged to give up the government for a year to a committee of bishops, earls, and barons. "*The Ordainers*," as they were called, drew up articles of reform, lessening the King's power, and again banishing Piers. Edward, after complaining and entreating in vain, parted in tears with his favourite. But not a year had passed before Piers rejoined the King, upon which the barons took up arms under *Thomas, Earl of Lancaster*, cousin to the King, and besieging Piers in Scarborough Castle, obliged him to surrender. His enemy, *Guy Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick*, upon whom Piers had fixed the name of "The Black Dog," carried him off to his own castle; and, his death being determined on, he was beheaded in the presence of Earl Thomas, on Blacklow Hill, near Warwick, June 19, 1312.

3. **Battle of Bannockburn.**—While Edward was wrangling with his barons, Scotland was lost, the fortresses there falling one by one into the hands of Bruce. At last, in 1314, Edward, with a large army, set out to save Stirling Castle, whose governor had agreed to surrender if not relieved before the Feast of St. John the Baptist, June 24. Almost the same story is told of this battle as of Hastings. The English, it is said, spent the vigil in revelry, shouting their old drinking cries of "Wassail", and "Drink hail;" the Scots kept it fasting. The battle took place on the morrow near *Bannockburn*. Bruce's small force, chiefly made up of infantry, was disposed in squares or circles of spearmen, upon which the heavy cavalry, which formed the strength of the English army, dashed themselves in vain. Ill led, and thrown into disorder, the English broke up in utter rout, many of the flying

horsemen floundering into pitfalls which the Scots had dug in the plain. Edward fled, closely pursued by a party of Scottish horse, and all his treasures and supplies fell into the hands of the victors. Scotland had now won her independence, though it was long before the English would treat Bruce as King.

4. **The Scots in Ireland.**—Ireland was torn asunder between the settlers in the "pale" or English district, and the native *septs* or clans, who were for ever making war upon each other and among themselves. *O'Neill* and other chiefs of Ulster, joined by the Lacys, a Norman-English family, now offered the Irish crown to *Edward Bruce*, brother of Robert. Edward came over with an army to Ulster in 1315; and there gaining, together with his Irish allies, some victories, was crowned King at Carrickfergus. But the Irish hopes were broken by the defeat of *Athenree*, August 10, 1316; and two years later Edward Bruce fell in battle near Dundalk.

5. **The Despensers.**—After a time, the King found a new favourite, *Sir Hugh le Despenser*, upon whom he bestowed large estates. Despenser and his father, who was Edward's chief adviser, were soon as much a cause of strife as Gaveston had been, and sentence of forfeiture and exile was passed upon them by the Peers. An affront offered to the Queen by Lady Badlesmere, who refused to admit her into Leeds Castle, roused Edward to take up arms, and finding himself better supported than he had expected, he proceeded to attack the Lords Marchers, who had harried the lands of the Despensers, and been foremost in obtaining their banishment. Earl Thomas rose in aid of his friends, but being defeated at *Boroughbridge*, was led captive to his own castle of Pontefract, condemned as a rebel and traitor, and beheaded. He had been in treasonable communication with the Scots, and altogether deserved little pity; but he had set himself up as the friend of

the clergy and people, and he was popularly accounted a martyr. His chief ally, *Humfrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford*, son of the Bohun who had withstood Edward I., had fallen in the fight. Another leading man of Lancaster's party, *Roger of Mortimer, Lord of Wigmore*, was condemned to death, but the sentence was changed to imprisonment.

6. **Deposition of Edward.**—On divers pretexts *Charles IV.*, King of France, quarrelled with Edward, who, believing that his wife would have influence with her brother, sent her in 1325 to France to negotiate for him, and allowed his eldest son, *Edward, Earl of Chester*, a boy of twelve, to join her. Months passed without either mother or son returning, Isabel professing to have fears of Hugh Despenser. At last, September 24, 1326, she landed in Suffolk; but it was at the head of foreign soldiers and a number of exiles, among them Roger Mortimer, who had escaped from the Tower. So unpopular were the Despensers that the Queen was hailed as a deliverer; while the King, after vainly appealing to the loyalty of the Londoners, fled to the West, where his favourite's estates lay. The elder Despenser, now *Earl of Winchester*, who commanded at Bristol, being forced to surrender to Isabel, was hanged forthwith. Edward was captured in Glamorgan, together with the younger Despenser, who, crowned with nettles, was hanged fifty feet high at Hereford. The King being carried prisoner to Kenilworth, a Parliament was summoned, which resolved that he was unworthy to reign, and that his eldest son should be King in his stead. The crowd that filled Westminster Hall shouted assent; but Isabel feigned violent grief, and young Edward, touched by her seeming sorrow, vowed that he would never take the crown against his father's will. A resignation was therefore obtained from the elder Edward, who yielded with tears; and the ceremony was closed by the steward of the household, Sir Thomas

Blount, breaking his staff of office and declaring all persons in the royal service discharged, as was done at a King's death.

7. **Murder of Edward.**—From Edward's deposition to his death was but a step. He was made over to the keeping of Sir John de Maltravers, who, to conceal his abode, moved him from castle to castle, and by insults and ill-usage strove to destroy his reason or his life. Finally he was placed in Berkeley Castle, where, on the 21st September, 1327, he was cruelly and secretly murdered, a deed which Mortimer afterwards confessed to have commanded.

8. **Suppression of the Templars.**—It was in the time of this King that Pope *Clement V.* suppressed throughout Europe the wealthy *Order of the Knights Templars*, soldier-monks who had done great service in the Holy Wars. The Order therefore came to an end in England as elsewhere, and all its property was confiscated. Its London abode in Fleet Street, the *Temple*, afterwards passed into the hands of two societies of lawyers, the *Inner* and *Middle Temple*, to whom it still belongs.

CHAPTER XIX.

EDWARD III.

Edward III.; Mortimer and the Queen; Peace with Scotland; fall of Mortimer (1)—*claim upon the French Crown; the Hundred Years' War; battles of Sluys and Crécy; taking of Calais; battle of Neville's Cross;* (2)—*the Black Death* (3)—*battle of Poitiers* (4)—*Peace of Bretigny* (5)—*the Spanish expedition; disaffection of Aquitaine; losses of the English* (6)—*the Good Parliament; death of the Black Prince* (7)—*death of Edward* (8)—*legislation* (9)—*commerce* (10)—*John Wycliffe* (11).

1. **Edward III., of Windsor, 1327–1377.**—As the new King was only fourteen, guardians were appointed to carry on the government; but the Queen and Mortimer contrived to get all power into their own hands. The reign began with a Scottish inroad. Mounted on rough galloways, each man carrying at his saddle his supply of oatmeal and a flat stone to bake it on, the Scots scoured the northern counties, burning villages and lifting cattle, while young *Edward* and his fine army toiled vainly after them, never able to bring them to a battle, often unable even to learn where they were. The Scots went laughing home, and the next year the English rulers made a peace, March 17, 1328, by which they were thought to have sacrificed the young King's rights, as they gave up the claim to feudal superiority over Scotland. Hence arose a strong feeling against the Queen and Mortimer, to whom the peace was ascribed. Mortimer, though hated by the nobles, believed himself to be secure, and so absurdly insolent was his conduct that his own son called him the "King of Folly." But he had not reckoned upon an outburst of spirit on the part of Edward, who was now eighteen. The governor of Nottingham Castle, where Mortimer was staying, let in, through an underground passage, a party of Edward's friends, who, headed by the King, burst at midnight into the chamber where the favourite was holding consultation with his advisers, and, regardless of the entreaties of Isabel, made him prisoner. The King, now his own master, called a Parliament, and Mortimer, being condemned by the Peers without a hearing, was hanged at Tyburn, Nov. 29, 1330. Isabel passed the rest of her life in ward at Castle Rising.

2. **The Hundred Years' War.**—On the death in 1328 of Charles IV., Edward had put in a claim to the crown of France in right of his mother; but the French maintained that no right could pass through

women, who by a custom supposed to be founded on the ancient "*Salic Law*" were shut out from the throne. Nothing came of this claim until the actual King, *Philip of Valois*, by encroaching in Aquitaine, and by supporting the Scots in their hostilities, roused Edward into setting it up again, and entering upon the "*Hundred Years' War*," so called because, though there was not constant fighting, there was no lasting peace during all that time. Edward at first formed foreign alliances, especially with the Flemish cities, but afterwards made war alone. His first great victory was a sea-fight off *Sluys*, June 24, 1340; and after six years more of alternate war and truce, he gained the famous battle of *Crécy*, Aug. 26, 1346. The French far outnumbered the English, but they were undisciplined and ill led, and their Genoese crossbowmen, whose bowstrings had just been so wetted by a shower as to be almost useless, gave way before the terrible volleys of the English archers. Still there was sharp fighting, and at one time *Edward, Prince of Wales*, a lad of sixteen on his first campaign, was so sorely pressed that a knight was sent to his father to beg for reinforcements. The King, on learning that his son was neither slain nor wounded, refused. "Let the boy win his spurs," he said (that is, prove himself worthy of knighthood); and gallantly they were won. "Fair son," said the King at the end of the day, embracing the young Prince, "God give you good perseverance! You are my son, for loyally have you acquitted yourself this day; you are worthy to hold land." King Philip, half wild with rage and grief, escaped to Amiens. It is said by foreign writers of the time that Edward employed cannon or "bombards" in this action, and with good effect. Edward then proceeded to blockade by sea and land the town of *Calais*, which he starved into a surrender. The story goes that he would only spare the people, whom he hated

as pirates, on condition that six principal burgesses, bareheaded, barefooted, and with halters about their necks, should bring him the keys of the town, and give themselves up at discretion. "On them," he said, "I will do my will." *Eustace of St. Pierre*, the richest of the townsmen, volunteered to sacrifice himself, and his noble example was followed by five others. The King seemed determined to have their heads struck off; even *Walter of Mauny*, one of his bravest knights, was silenced when he pleaded for them.—"Forbear, Sir Walter!" said the King, grinding his teeth, "it shall not be otherwise." He only gave way when his wife, *Philippa of Hainault*, fell in tears at his feet, and begged their lives. The town, which Edward peopled with a colony of English, remained for more than two centuries in possession of our country. A truce was now brought about by the Pope, *Clement VI.* During Edward's absence in France, the Scots, taking the opportunity of invading England, were defeated near Durham, Oct. 12, 1346, and their King, *David Bruce*, was made prisoner. *Sir Ralf Neville*, one of the English leaders, reared a cross to mark the battle-field, which thence took its name of *Neville's Cross.* The tale of victories was completed, Aug. 29, 1350, by a sea-fight in the Channel with the Spaniards, who had committed piracies upon English vessels. The King and the Prince took active part in the combat, grappling their ships with two of the adversary's, and successfully boarding them. Edward now stood at the height of his glory. His foreign wars were in many respects needless and cruel, but they placed the country among the foremost nations of Christendom. The English learned to think themselves born to conquer Frenchmen; and the licence of plunder and the profits made by putting prisoners to ransom were a source of attraction to enterprising men in all ranks. The spoils of France were to be found in every house, and luxury and extravagance increased among all classes.

3. **The Black Death.**—In 1348 and 1349 a fearful plague called "*the Black Death*," which swept over Europe, killed, it is believed, more than half the inhabitants of England. Whole districts were thrown out of cultivation, whole parishes depopulated. Labourers, becoming thereby exceeding scarce, were enabled to command higher wages, though the King and Parliament vainly tried to force them, by the famous laws called the *Statutes of Labourers*, to work for their former hire, and forbade them to move from one county to another.

4. **Battle of Poitiers.**—The French war was renewed in 1355, the chief part being taken by young Edward, traditionally known as "*the Black Prince*," either from the colour of the armour he wore at Crécy, or from the terror with which the French regarded him. With his English and Gascons, he made a savage raid upon Languedoc, "a good land and fat," which for years had not known war; and after burning, sacking, and putting to ransom, he marched back to Bordeaux with horses hardly able to move under their loads of plunder. The next year he swept into Touraine and Poitou, but this time his small army encountered, near *Poitiers*, a great host led by the French King, *John the Good.* The battle, which took place on the 19th Sept., 1356, began by a band of French horsemen charging up a narrow lane, when the Prince's archers let fly from behind the hedges and down the lane, and at once threw them into confusion. Although this first attack failed, the combat was long and obstinate; but in the end the French were overthrown, and their King, fighting gallantly, was taken prisoner. With the courtesy of the time, the Prince waited upon his royal captive at supper the same evening; and in the following spring, when he entered London in triumph, similar respect was paid to John's superior rank, he being mounted on a splendidly caparisoned white charger, while his conqueror rode by his side on a black pony.

To face page 109

FRANCE AFTER THE TREATY OF BRETIGNY.



Dominions of the King of England

The boundary of the French Kingdom shown thus

London, Macmillan & Co.

5. **Peace of Bretigny.**—A peace was made at *Bretigny*, May 8, 1360, under which John was to ransom himself for three million gold crowns, and Edward gave up his claim to the throne of France, but kept Poitou and Aquitaine, besides Calais and some other small districts, no longer as a vassal, but as an independent sovereign.

6. **The Spanish Expedition.**—In 1367, the Black Prince, who ruled at Bordeaux as *Prince of Aquitaine*, took the part of *Don Pedro* or *Peter the Cruel*, the dethroned *King of Castile*, and won him back his kingdom by the victory of *Navarrete*. But the thankless Pedro broke his promise of repaying Edward's expenses, and the Prince returned to Bordeaux with his health ruined, his temper spoiled, and his treasury drained. Against the advice of some of his wisest counsellors, he levied a hearth-tax; and as the English were already disliked because they "were so proud that they set nothing by any nation but by their own," the Aquitanian nobles turned to the French King, *Charles V.*, and war broke out again. The Prince rallied his ebbing strength, but his last exploit—a general massacre of the townsfolk of *Limoges*, which had offended him by treacherously surrendering to the French, and which he had retaken—has left a stain on his name. After this cruel deed, he returned to England. By 1374 hardly anything was left to the English in Aquitaine, excepting Bordeaux and Bayonne; and, wearied with disasters, King Edward obtained a truce.

7. **The Good Parliament.**—The King's third son, *John, Duke of Lancaster*, called from his birthplace *John of Ghent* or *Gaunt*, now took the lead at home; for the younger Edward was slowly dying, and the elder one had become old and feeble. Good Queen Philippa was dead, and one *Alice Perrers* made use of the King's favour to interfere with the course of justice. The government was wasteful, and the

men whom the Duke appointed unworthy of trust. Amid these evils, there met, in 1376, a Parliament, gratefully remembered by the title of "*the Good*," which, supported by the Black Prince, boldly set itself to the work of reform. The Commons, among whom the *knights of the shire* took the chief part, *impeached*, or accused before the Lords, several of the Duke's friends, charging them with frauds upon the King and with extortion of money, and obtained their imprisonment or removal from office. Alice Perrers was forbidden, under pain of banishment, to meddle in the law-courts. This is the first instance of the Commons using this power of impeachment, or trying to interfere with the ministers of the Crown. On the 8th June, the Prince died; and great was the mourning of the nation for him who had won them fame abroad, and striven with his last strength to save them from misrule at home. He was buried in Canterbury Cathedral, where his helmet, shield, gauntlets, and surcoat embroidered with the arms of England and France, still hang above his tomb. After his death the Parliament showed itself still more hostile to John of Gaunt, who was suspected of aiming at the succession to the throne; but as soon as it was dissolved, the Duke had everything his own way; the former favourites were recalled; the foreman or Speaker of the knights in the late Parliament was imprisoned, and a new Parliament was summoned, which undid all the good work of its predecessor.

8. **Death of Edward.**—In his last moments at Shene, Edward was forsaken by all his servants and even by Alice Perrers, after she had robbed him of the rings on his fingers. One priest alone came to the King's bedside, and Edward, in tears, receiving a crucifix from him, kissed it and died, June 21, 1377. In after ages his fame stood higher than he deserved. Men read of the brilliant victories and feats of arms which shed lustre over what was in the long run a

disastrous war, and they looked back to him as a national hero. In his own day, though he was admired as a warrior, the people at large never had any great love for him. He was unprincipled, selfish, over-head in debt, and, like Richard I., he valued England chiefly as a source of supplies. His sons were *Edward, Prince of Wales* and *Duke of Cornwall*, who married his cousin *Joan*, "*the Fair Maid of Kent;*" *Lionel, Duke of Clarence*, whose only daughter married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March; *John, Duke of Lancaster; Edmund of Langley, Duke of York;* and *Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester.* This title of *Duke*, the highest in the peerage, was first conferred by Edward III. Though the names of duke, earl, and other titles of later introduction marked degrees of dignity, all Peers were equal in Parliament, and the ancient title of earl had long ceased to denote the possession of any particular authority or government. In this reign, *St. Stephen's Chapel*, Westminster, was finished. The King founded the Order of *Knights of the Garter*, and rebuilt the greater part of *Windsor Castle.* His chief architect was *William of Wykeham*, afterwards Bishop of Winchester, and Lord Chancellor. Wykeham, in the next reign, founded *New College*, Oxford, and also the College of *Winchester*, in which city he himself had been educated.

9. **Legislation.**—In 1352 was passed the *Statute of Treasons*, which clearly stated what offences amounted to *high treason.* Treason was accounted the highest crime known to the law, and the traitor forfeited his dignities, lands, goods, and life. A statute passed in 1362 forbade *purveyance* except for the personal wants of the King and Queen. Throughout the reigns of the three Edwards, the exactions of the royal purveyors, who paid for what they took at the lowest rate or not at all, had been getting worse and worse. In the middle of

ploughing or harvest the husbandman might be forced to work and to lend his horses for the service of any of the royal household who could use the King's name. It was impossible that the common folk should have any liking for the King at the news of whose coming they made haste to hide away their geese and chickens; and to the abuse of purveyance may in great measure be attributed the hatred felt for Edward II., and the failure of Edward III., and even of Edward I., to win popularity. Laws were passed to restrain the power which the Popes exercised over the English Church and clergy; and the demand made in 1366 by Pope *Urban V.* for thirty-three years' arrears of John's tribute, was absolutely refused.

10. **Commerce.**—In 1331 Edward took advantage of discontents among the Flemish weavers to invite them over here, where they settled chiefly in Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, and brought in the finer manufactures of woollen cloths. The people were so jealous of these newcomers that Edward had no small trouble to protect them. The wool of England was at that time the finest in Europe, and was the chief article of export and source of revenue.

11. **John Wycliffe.**—In this and the next reign lived *John Wycliffe*, born near Richmond in Yorkshire, a doctor of Oxford, who put forth opinions differing on many points, particularly on the Eucharist, from the received doctrines, and assailed alike the *Begging Friars*, who, professing to subsist upon alms, had become rich and worldly, and the wealthy clergy, his idea being that the clergy ought to live in poverty. He spread his views abroad by his writings and by his "poor priests," disciples whom he sent out to preach among the people. His great work was a translation of the Bible, made by himself and his followers. John of Gaunt and a party at court for a time befriended him, more because they were jealous

of the power of the clergy than from any real religious sympathy with him. Although he was at last forbidden to teach at Oxford, he remained in his rectory of Lutterworth, where he died peaceably in 1384; many years afterwards his bones were taken up and burned as those of a heretic. His disciples were nicknamed *Lollards*.

CHAPTER XX.

RICHARD II.

Richard of Bordeaux; the Peasant Insurrection (1)—*government of Richard; fall of the Duke of Gloucester* (2)—*Henry of Lancaster; his banishment and return in arms* (3)—*capture, abdication, and deposition of Richard; Henry raised to the throne* (4)—*Statute of Præmunire* (5)—*language* (6)—*literature* (7).

1. **Richard II., of Bordeaux, 1377-1399. The Peasant Insurrection of 1381.**—*Richard of Bordeaux*, son of the Black Prince, became King at the age of eleven. His reign was troublous and unfortunate. Four years after he ascended the throne an insurrection broke out among the peasants. The growing ideas of liberty and equality, fostered by the preaching of the Lollards, and the yoke of villainage tended to cause discontent. Till the "Black Death" indeed, *villainage* had not been burthensome, and was growing lighter every year. The lords accepted money payments in lieu of service; they were often willing to grant or sell enfranchisement; the clergy encouraged the setting free of the *villain* as a good work, and the *villain* who dwelt unclaimed for a year and a day in a free borough became free.

In one way or another the mass of villains and serfs became practically free hirelings. But the pestilence came, and after it the Statute of Labourers, fixing wages which the men refused to accept. At their wit's end for labour, the landlords fell back upon their half-forgotten rights over the villains, and recalled to servitude many a man who had hitherto been as good as free. The irritation thus produced spread to the lower class of free tenants, who also owed burthensome service to their lords: and the ranks of the malcontents were swelled by dissatisfied artisans and discharged soldiers. It was the pressure of a poll-tax of three groats upon every person above fifteen years old which brought about the actual outbreak. All who had grievances seemed suddenly to have banded together. Here it was the Lollards or the Friars that had raised a cry against the clergy; there clergymen stood forth as ringleaders. Jingling rimes conveying some hidden meaning carried the signal for revolt from shire to shire. Unknown men, bearing names or nicknames which marked them as of the same class as their followers—*Jack Straw*, *Wat Tyler*, and the like—started up as leaders The insurrection began among the peasants of Essex, where villainage was the special grievance, and thence spread to Kent, where villainage was unknown. The revolt there, according to a well-known tradition, was partly brought about by the tax-gatherer's insulting behaviour to a young girl of Dartford. Her father, *John Tyler*, so called because he was a tiler by trade, killed the offender on the spot with a stroke of his lathing-staff. The Kentish insurgents are said to have numbered 100,000 men by the time they reached Blackheath, where they were harangued upon the equality of mankind by a priest named *John Ball*, who took as his text the rime:—

"When Adam delved, and Eve span.
Who was then a gentleman?"

This rude army entered London, and breaking open the prisons, let the prisoners loose, burned John of Gaunt's palace of the Savoy, and the Temple, together with its books and records, and butchered all the Flemish artisans they could find ; but in their havoc, they allowed of no plunder for private profit. "We will not be thieves," they said, as they flung Lancaster's jewels into the Thames. A large body, mostly Essex and Hertfordshire men, withdrew the next day, young Richard having promised to comply with their demands, chief of which was the abolition of villainage. But meanwhile another division had entered the Tower, and there seized and beheaded the Archbishop and Chancellor *Simon Sudbury*, and six other men. This force, which mainly consisted of Kentishmen, remained in arms, and on the morrow, June 15, its leader, *Walter* or "*Wat*" *Tyler*, had an interview with the King in Smithfield. Wat is described as behaving insolently, keeping his cap on, and, according to one story, laying his hand on Richard's rein ; at all events, the conference ended in his being stabbed by the Mayor, *Sir William Walworth*, and others. The insurgents bent their bows, but Richard boldly rode up to them, exclaiming that he himself would be their leader. They followed him to the fields at Islington, where a considerable force of knights and citizens hastened to protect the King ; and the rioters dispersed after the promised charters of emancipation and pardon had been delivered. In Norfolk the insurrection was put down by *Henry Spenser*, "the fighting Bishop of Norwich." On the 2nd of July, Richard, who indeed could not legally abolish villainage without consent of the Lords and Commons, annulled the charters he had granted; and throughout the country great numbers of the rioters were tried and put to death. But though the rebellion was stamped out, and the Parliament scouted a suggestion of a general enfranchisement, villainage had nevertheless

received a heavy blow. The landlords forbore to recall the freed labourers to serfdom, they again accepted money payments instead of labour, and let their lands to leasehold tenants.

2. **Government of Richard.**—Richard was noted for his beauty; his abilities were good, and he could act on occasion with quickness and daring; but he was wasteful, dissipated, frivolously fond of shows and pageants, and violent in temper. Mistrusting his uncles who had kept him in tutelage as long as they could, he promoted and enriched friends of his own who were hated as upstarts. In 1388 the party against the King, which was headed by his youngest uncle *Thomas, Duke of Gloucester*, got the upper hand; when exile or death became the lot of Richard's friends. The Parliament in which they were condemned was known by the epithets of "the Wonderful" and "the Merciless." The next year Richard, displaying sudden vigour, took the government into his own hands, and for eight years he ruled well, though apparently he never really forgave those who had taken part in the doings of 1388. His first wife, "*the Good Queen Anne*" of *Bohemia*, who seems to have been inclined towards the doctrines of Wycliffe, and who was beloved both by her husband and by the nation, died in 1394. Two years later he married a child of eight years old, *Isabel*, daughter of Charles VI. of France. This step was unpopular, as the English had no wish to be friends with France, and it was strongly opposed by Gloucester; but Richard, whose policy was one of peace, desired to secure a long truce. The next year, 1397, he had his uncle Gloucester seized and hurried off to Calais. The governor of that town soon made report that the Duke was dead—secretly murdered, as most thought. The *Earl of Arundel*, Gloucester's chief ally, was tried in Parliament, and beheaded; his brother, *Thomas Arundel*, Archbishop of Canterbury, was banished.

Richard had now punished his enemies, and in fact become an absolute King, his subservient Parliament consenting to hand over its whole authority to a committee of men supposed to be devoted to him, so that there was no check upon him.

3. **Henry of Lancaster.**—Of the noblemen who had given the King such offence in 1388, two only remained—*Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk*, and *Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford*, son of John of Gaunt. Both had gone over to the King's side, and had been taken into favour. In 1398 Hereford accused Norfolk of having spoken slanderously of the King; and Norfolk denying the charge, the matter was to be decided at Coventry by trial of battle. But just as accuser and accused, armed and mounted, were about to set upon each other, Richard stopped the fight, and rid himself of them both by banishing Hereford for ten years, and Norfolk for life. John of Gaunt did not survive his son's exile many months, and his estates, which should have passed to Hereford, were seized by the King. Hereford—*Duke of Lancaster* as he now was—took advantage of Richard's absence on an expedition to Ireland, to return to England. In company with Archbishop Arundel, he landed, July 4, 1399, with a few men-at-arms, at *Ravenspurne*, then a seaport on the Humber, but which has now long been swallowed by the waves. He was at once joined by the *Earls of Northumberland* and *Westmoreland*, the heads of the great northern families of *Percy* and *Neville;* and his few followers soon swelled to 60,000 men; while the King's uncle, *Edmund, Duke of York*, who acted as Regent, instead of attacking him, ended by espousing his cause.

4. **Deposition of Richard.**—Owing to contrary winds, Richard heard nothing from England till a fortnight after Henry of Lancaster's landing; and when the news arrived he still lingered, irresolute, in Ireland. At last he landed in Wales, but his troops

fell off from him; he was deluded into leaving his place of refuge, Conway, by the treachery of the Earl of Northumberland, who then led him prisoner to Flint Castle, where he was handed over to Henry. He was brought to London, and there formally resigned the crown. The next day, Sept. 30, the Lords and Commons met, and voted his deposition on the ground of misgovernment. Upon this Henry of Lancaster rose, and claimed the crown, as being a descendant of Henry III., and as—so he hinted rather than plainly said—actual master of the realm, which had been near its ruin through bad government. Archbishop Arundel then led him to the throne, on which he was placed amid the shouts of the people who filled Westminster Hall.

5. **Statute of Præmunire.**—In 1393 was passed what is commonly called the *Statute of Præmunire*, which enacted that whoever should procure from Rome or elsewhere, excommunications, bulls or other things against the King and his realm, should be put out of the King's protection, and all his lands and goods forfeited. The name of *præmunire*, which was the first word of the Latin writ by which a man was summoned before the King to answer a charge of contempt against him, was commonly given to the offence of attempting to introduce a foreign jurisdiction. The penalties of forfeiture and outlawry had in the preceding reign been denounced against those who sued in foreign courts for matters cognizable in the King's court; and the statute of 1393 was only one of a number of laws made with the same view of restraining the Pope's influence.

6. **Language.**—From the twelfth century to the reign of Edward III., we may reckon three written languages in use in England:—*Latin*, common to the clergy and the learned throughout Western Christendom; *French*, the tongue of the nobles and the gentry; and *English*, of the people. This last, the native

speech, underwent great changes. The *Old-English* ceased to be written or spoken accurately, and fast broke up. In John's reign, French, such as is still current in the Channel Islands, began to be used instead of Latin as the language of public business; and to this day the royal assent to Bills is announced in Parliament in the French words *Le Roi* or *La Reine le veut;* that is, the King, or the Queen, wills it. The descendants of the Normans, even after they had become Englishmen in feeling, kept up their ancestors' speech in addition to that of the country. As a mark of gentility, everybody aspired to some acquaintance with the fashionable jargon, which grew so corrupt that out of England it would hardly have passed for French. The fashion spread till it became laughable; and meanwhile a new form of English, largely infused with French, was gaining Court favour. By the middle of the reign of Edward III., the rage for the foreign speech was dying out; and in 1362 the use of the English tongue was established in the courts of law. *John Cornwaile*, a master of grammar, is recorded as the first to set the fashion of teaching schoolboys in their own language instead of in French; so that by 1385, says a writer of the time, "in all the grammar-schools of England, children leave French and construe and learn in English." The common phrase of "King's English" probably originally meant the standard language of proclamations, charters, and the like, in contrast to the various dialects of rural districts.

7. **Literature.**—After the Norman Conquest there arose a number of historians, who, being monks or clergymen, wrote in Latin. Among the best known of this class is *William*, the monk of *Malmesbury*, patronized by that Earl of Gloucester who figures in the wars of Matilda. William's chief works are a History of the Kings of England down to Henry I., and a later history, which carries the narrative into the

midst of the struggle between Stephen and Matilda. To the same Earl of Gloucester was dedicated the *History of the Britons*, by a Welsh priest, *Geoffrey of Monmouth.* This was a collection of Welsh and Breton legends, written in Latin, with an air of historic gravity; and the author got the nickname of "*Arthur*" from his glorifying the British Prince of that name. Geoffrey furnished the groundwork for metrical romances in French and English, and his hero Arthur still keeps his place in poetry and fairy-tale. Among thirteenth-century historians, the greatest is *Matthew Paris*, a monk of *St. Albans*, who wrote the history of his own time, and is remarkable for the boldness with which he expresses the national grievances. Pre-eminent among scholars of that age is *Roger Bacon*, who, after having studied at the universities of Oxford and Paris, became a *Franciscan* or *Grey Friar.* He was our first great experimental philosopher, and long afterwards, when his real merit was forgotten, "Friar Bacon" was remembered by tradition as a wizard. His writings show that he was marvellously in advance of his age, and knew or guessed at many things which no one understood for years after him. Thus he seems to have known the theory of a telescope, though it does not appear that he ever made one. The Old-English Chronicle—or rather Chronicles, for the work of writing the national annals was carried on simultaneously in various monasteries, whose events were set down as they occurred—was continued in the Abbey of Peterborough as far as 1154, the year of Stephen's death, where it breaks off. There were English writings in the thirteenth century—political songs, romances, metrical chronicles, devotional works —which are known to students, but it is not till the next century that we meet with any famous names. Among these has long ranked that of *Sir John Mandeville*, now suspected to be himself as fabulous as many of the wonders which he tells. It is thought that the

book which professes to be his account of his travels in Palestine, Egypt, India, and other lands, was made up in French by a foreign writer pretending to be an English knight, and was afterwards put into our language. *Langland* was the author of a long poem, known as the *Vision of Piers Plowman*,— a religious allegory, which is valuable for its details of the every-day life of the people. But the chief poets of the age were *Geoffrey Chaucer* and *John Gower*, who both were influenced by the revival of learning in Italy and by the poets of that nation, and both wrote the new English which was in favour at Court, and which became our standard language. Chaucer, who in genius was far above his friend Gower, was son of a vintner in London, and began life as page to the wife of the King's son Lionel, afterwards Duke of Clarence. He was taken prisoner and ransomed in the French war, obtained a post in the King's household, was employed on diplomatic missions in Italy and elsewhere, and in 1386 sat in Parliament as one of the members for Kent. He died at Westminster, Oct. 25, 1400. His great poem is the unfinished "*Canterbury Tales*," a series of stories supposed to be told by a party of pilgrims, of various ranks and callings, on their way to the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury.

CHAPTER XXI.

HENRY IV.

Henry IV.; the Earl of March (1)—*end of Richard* (2)—*Owen Glendower* (3)—*rebellion of the Percies; battle of Shrewsbury* (4)—*story of the Prince of Wales and the Chief Justice* (5)—*death of Henry* (6); *statute against heretics; the Lollard martyrs* (7).

1. House of Lancaster. Henry IV., of Bolingbroke, 1399-1413.—*Henry* was in fact an

elected King, but, as has been seen, he put forward a claim of right which he rested partly on his descent from Henry III. *Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March*, descended from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, elder brother of John of Gaunt, was nearer to the throne according to the rule of hereditary succession, and in the last reign his father had been declared the heir. But Edmund was a mere child, and Henry was satisfied with keeping this possible rival in honourable confinement.

2. **End of Richard.**—By the advice of the Lords the unfortunate Richard was consigned to secret and perpetual imprisonment; and so secret was it that even the place of his captivity was concealed. But a few months after Henry's accession, some nobles took up arms in the late King's favour; and not long after this attempt had been crushed, Richard's dead body was brought from Pontefract Castle to London, where it was shown publicly in St. Paul's, and then buried at Langley. Some said that he had been killed in prison by one Sir Piers Exton and seven other murderers; a more general belief was that he had died of starvation, either compulsory or voluntary. But the tale which gave Henry the most trouble was that the body shown was that of another, and that Richard was alive in Scotland.

3. **Owen Glendower.**—Henry had not been long on the throne when the Welsh, by whom King Richard had been beloved, rose in arms. They found a leader in *Owain Glyndwr* or *Owen Glendower*, a gentleman of Merionethshire, who traced his descent from Llewelyn, Prince of Wales, and who had been esquire to King Richard. He soon made himself a terror to the English on the marches, and, as his fame spread, the Welsh scholars from the Universities, and the Welsh labourers employed in England, flocked to join the insurgent chief, against whom Henry led his armies in vain. Withdrawing to his mountains

Glendower left his foes to struggle hopelessly against wind and wet, and the difficulties of a wild and rugged country.

4. **Rebellion of the Percies.**—Henry's most powerful friends were the Percies—*the Earl of Northumberland*, his brother *Thomas, Earl of Worcester*, and his son *Sir Henry*—the last being a thorough "marchman," a warrior of the Northern Borders, who had spent his life in foray and battle against the Scots, by whom he was nicknamed "*Harry Hotspur*," because so constantly was he in the saddle, that, as the saying was, his spur was never cold. He and his father, on the 14th Sept., 1402, won the battle of *Homildon Hill*, near Wooler, against the invading Scots. The victory was gained almost wholly by the archers, whose skill may be judged from the fact that the Scottish leader, *Earl Douglas*, though sheathed in armour of unusual excellence, received five arrow-wounds. But the Percies became discontented, chiefly because the King would not, or rather could not, repay them what they had spent in warfare and in the custody of the Scottish marches. Moreover he refused to permit *Sir Edmund Mortimer* to be ransomed from Glendower, to whom he was captive. Mortimer was Hotspur's brother-in-law, but he was also uncle to the young Earl of March, and Henry was therefore glad to have him out of the way. Being thus offended, Mortimer and the Percies, with their former foe Earl Douglas, planned to join Glendower in an enterprise to win the crown for Richard, if alive, or else for the Earl of March. So little did Henry seem to suspect the Percies that he was professedly on his way to join them in an expedition against the Scots, when he learned that Hotspur and Worcester were in arms for King Richard and marching for Wales. Hurrying westward, he fought an obstinate and bloody battle with them on *Hateley Field*, near *Shrewsbury*, July 21, 1403, when Hotspur fell, pierced by a shaft

in the brain, and his followers fled; Worcester was taken, and paid for his rebellion with his life. The crafty Northumberland, who had not been present, protested that his son had acted in disobedience to him, and came off unpunished. He was afterwards concerned in a northern revolt in 1405, for taking part in which *Richard Scrope, Archbishop of York*, was beheaded; while the Earl escaped, to be killed in a third rebellion. The power of Glendower, who at times received aid from the French, was gradually broken by *Henry, Prince of Wales;* but he never made any submission.

5. **The Prince of Wales.**—Tradition represents the Prince of Wales, when not engaged in war, as leading a wild life among dissolute companions. But he was so constantly employed, and so highly praised in Parliament, that we may suppose some early freak to have been exaggerated. There is a story about him, not told till more than a century after his death, but yet too famous to be omitted. One of his servants, it is said, was arraigned before the Chief Justice for felony. Young Henry imperiously demanded the man's release, and, enraged by refusal, made as if he would do some violence to the judge, who thereupon ordered him to the prison of the King's Bench for contempt. The Prince had the good sense to lay aside his weapon and submit to the punishment. His father, on hearing of it, expressed his gratitude to Heaven for giving him a judge who feared not to minister justice, and a son who could obey it. The Prince was in fact so popular, that the King, whose health had broken down, became afraid of being superseded by him. Towards the end of the reign the Prince seems to have taken a leading part in the government; but apparently he had enemies who tried to oust him by rousing his father's jealousy, and the stories of his wild doings may have been set afloat by this party.

6. **Death of Henry.**—King Henry's conscience, we are told, was uneasy as to the manner in which he had come by the crown; and he meditated going on a crusade; but while praying at St. Edward's shrine in Westminster, he was seized with a fit, such as he was subject to. His attendants carried him into a chamber of the Abbot's, called "*Jerusalem*," which remains at this day, and laid him on a pallet near the fire. Coming to himself, he asked where he was; and being told, he said that he knew he should die there, for it had been prophesied to him that he would depart this life in Jerusalem. He lingered there a few days, and died, March 20, 1413, at the age of forty-seven. By his first wife, *Mary Bohun*, he had four sons: *Henry, Prince of Wales; Thomas, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Bedford;* and *Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester.* His second wife was *Joan of Navarre.*

7. **Statute against Heretics.**—As Archbishop Arundel had supported Henry, Henry in return lent himself to destroy the Lollards. By a statute passed in 1401, persons convicted by the diocesan of heretical opinions, if they refused to abjure, or, after abjuration, relapsed, were to be made over to the secular authorities to be burned. The first Wycliffite martyr was a clergyman *William Sautree*, burned in Smithfield, Feb. 12, 1401. For some time the Commons went along with the King; but they were jealous of the ecclesiastical power, and, so far as a desire to relieve themselves from taxation by throwing the burthen upon the wealth of the Church was concerned, they were all Lollards. As their feeling against the higher clergy grew stronger, they demanded a mitigation of the statute for the punishment of heretics; to which Henry answered that it ought rather to be made more severe. In the midst of these disputes, a poor smith, *John Badby*, was picked out for the second victim and burned in the same

place where Sautree had perished before him; the Prince of Wales, who was present, vainly endeavouring to shake the Lollard's constancy by the offer of life and a yearly pension.

CHAPTER XXII.

HENRY V.

Henry V. (1)—*Lord Cobham* (2)—*conspiracy of Cambridge, Scrope, and Grey; renewal of the Hundred Years' War; battle of Azincourt* (3)—*Treaty of Troyes* (4) —*third invasion and death of Henry; marriage of his widow* (5)—*Whittington* (6).

1. **Henry V., of Monmouth, 1413-1422.**—Whatever had been the previous life of *Henry of Monmouth*, and whether the tradition of his sudden conversion be true or no, it is certain that as King he was a man of almost austere piety. He had been early trained in Welsh warfare, and as a general and a statesman, he often displayed the hard and ruthless spirit characteristic of the fifteenth century; but he was open and fearless, and therefore free from petty suspicion, and his natural disposition was generous. He set free the young Earl of March; after some time he restored the son of Hotspur to the lands and honours of the Percies; and he had the body of King Richard II. removed and buried in Westminster Abbey. A writer, supposed to have been an ecclesiastic of the royal household, has left us a description of Henry, from which we learn that he had a delicate complexion and regular features, with thick and smooth brown hair, that his forehead was broad, and his frame well-knit and vigorous—he could bear almost any amount of fatigue, whether on horseback or on foot.

2. Lord Cobham.—The alarm created by the Lollards was increasing. Among them were numbered, not only those who questioned the generally received religious doctrines, but the discontented and revolutionary also; and they uttered threatening vaunts as to their number and power. Their chief leader, under whose patronage unlicensed preachers spread over the country, was *Sir John Oldcastle*, called *Lord Cobham*. Henry, who had an old friendship for Cobham, spent his powers of religious argument, backed up by threats, upon him without success. Being tried in the Archbishop's court, and adjudged a heretic, Cobham was sent to the Tower, from whence he escaped, and became a terror to the government, which dreaded a Lollard rising under such a leader—for he was a tried soldier. There was some mysterious midnight meeting of Lollards in the fields at St. Giles, which was dispersed by the King, and in which Cobham was said to be concerned. After this, he lay hid for a few years; but being then discovered, he was put to death as a traitor and a heretic, being hung up in an iron chain, and burned by a fire kindled below. Whether he was a loyal subject hunted down by the priesthood, or a traitor who aimed at being president of a Lollard commonwealth, remains matter of dispute.

3. Renewal of the Hundred Years' War.—Since the breaking of the Peace of Bretigny, there had been sometimes truce and sometimes war with France, but never a peace. Henry now resolved on an attempt to recover "his inheritance," the time being favourable, as the French King, *Charles VI.*, was insane, and the country was torn asunder between rival factions. The fulfilment of the Treaty of Bretigny Henry could demand with some show of legal right; as for Edward's claim upon the crown, such as it was, it had descended, not to the House of Lancaster, but to the Mortimers. This however was a point too

subtle for the minds of the English, who seem to have reasoned that since Henry was their King, he must needs be King of France too. Rejecting an offer of the whole of the ancient Duchy of Aquitaine, Henry made ready for war, and was about to embark when discovery was made of a plot to set the Earl of March on the throne. The conspirators were the King's cousin *Richard, Earl of Cambridge*, who had married the Earl of March's sister, *Lord Scrope of Masham*, and *Sir Thomas Grey of Heton*. All three were put to death—an unpromising beginning of an expedition. However Henry set sail, and landing, Aug. 14, 1415, near *Harfleur*, laid siege to the place, which yielded to his artillery and mines in five weeks. As his army was thinned by disease, his advisers now urged him to return; but, confident in what he believed to be the righteousness of his cause and relying upon Heaven, he took instead the hazardous resolution of marching to Calais. On the plain of *Azincourt*, in Picardy, he was confronted by the French army. The English, who had suffered much from bad weather and scanty fare, betook themselves at night to confession and reception of the Sacrament; meanwhile the Frenchmen, if we may believe the English report, played at dice for the ransoms of their expected prisoners. The battle was fought the next day, October 25. The French men-at-arms, in their heavy plates of steel, were crowded together in a space so small that they had hardly room to strike, and on ground so soft from recent rain that their horses could hardly flounder through the mire. On foot, unarmoured, some bareheaded and barefooted, the English archers came on, and discharged their deadly volleys, which threw the first division of the French cavalry into confusion. Throwing down their bows, the archers fell upon them with sword and bill, and though the French fought gallantly for two hours longer, their fine army, reckoned at from six to ten

times the number of the English, was cut to pieces. When the day was nearly won, an alarm was raised that the French were about to renew the battle, upon which Henry hastily ordered his soldiers to kill their prisoners, lest they should aid the enemy—orders which were in most cases carried out before the mistake was discovered. After the victory, Henry sailed from Calais to Dover, and, with his chief captives in his train, made a triumphant entry into London, amid gorgeous shows and pageants. He himself observed a studied simplicity in dress and bearing, and, it is said, refused to allow his helmet, dinted with many blows, to be carried before him.

4. **Treaty of Troyes.**—In July 1417, Henry again invaded Normandy, and won fortress after fortress, while the French were occupied with quarrels among themselves. Rouen, being starved out after a gallant defence, surrendered, and there Henry built a palace and held his court. It was however doubtful whether he would be able to keep Normandy, when the game was unexpectedly thrown into his hands. The greatest of the French vassal princes, *Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy*, being blinded by desire to avenge his father, who had just been murdered during a conference with the French King's eldest son *Charles*, turned to the English for aid. He and the French Queen *Isabel*, who took the Burgundian side against her son, brought the incapable King to make at *Troyes*, May 21, 1420, a treaty with the English invader, by which Henry obtained the hand of the King's daughter *Katharine*, the regency of the kingdom, and the succession after King Charles's death to the crown, which was to be for ever united with that of England. The French King's son Charles — the *Dauphin*, to give him his proper title—who was thus disinherited, of course had nothing to do with this treaty, under which Henry undertook to carry on war against him and his friends.

5. Death of Henry.—Henry soon afterwards returned to England with his new-made Queen; but ere long he was recalled to France by the defeat and death of his brother the Duke of Clarence in battle at *Baugé* in Anjou against the Dauphin's men and their Scottish auxiliaries. On this campaign Henry carried with him young King *James I.* of Scotland, who sixteen years ago had been unjustly made prisoner by Henry IV., and his presence served as an excuse for hanging every captured Scot as a traitor taken in arms against his sovereign. By the taking of *Meaux*, Henry became master of the greater part of France north of the Loire; but his career was now run. He sickened, and died at Vincennes, Aug. 31, 1422, maintaining to the end his wonted composure. When during his last hours the ministers of religion round his bed were by his order reciting the penitential psalms, he interrupted them at the words "Build Thou the walls of Jerusalem," and said that he had intended, after effecting peace in France, to go to Jerusalem and free the Holy City. This was no mere deathbed resolution. Henry had really meditated a Crusade, and had sent out a Burgundian knight, Gilbert de Lannoy, to survey the coasts and defences of Egypt and Syria. This survey was completed and reported just after the King's untimely death. Henry's own people, and especially his soldiers, well-nigh worshipped him. His funeral procession, from Paris and Rouen to Calais, and from Dover to London and Westminster, was more sumptuous than that of any King before him. The sacred relics were removed from the eastern end of the Confessor's chapel in Westminster Abbey to make room for his tomb, which was honoured almost as that of a saint. Above the tomb there still hang his saddle and his helmet. Henry left one son, an infant only a few months old, who bore his name. His widow Katharine afterwards made an ill-assorted match with

one of her attendants, a Welsh gentleman called *Owen Tudor*, and in course of time their descendants —the *Tudor* line of sovereigns—came to sit on the English throne.

6. **Richard Whittington.**—To this period belonged "the flower of merchants," *Richard Whittington*, thrice Mayor of London — first under Richard II., next under Henry IV., and again under Henry V. The familiar tale of "Whittington and his Cat" is an old legend, which has been traced to a Persian origin. Whittington at any rate had a real existence; he advanced large sums to Henry V. for his wars, and was a benefactor to the City of London.

CHAPTER XXIII.

HENRY VI.

Henry VI.; the Maid of Orleans (1)—*strife among the nobles; Henry's marriage; murder of Suffolk* (2)—*Jack Cade's rebellion* (3)—*Wars of the Roses; succession of the Duke of York; his death; Edward of York raised to the throne* (4)—*county elections* (5) *attainder* (6).

1. **Henry VI., of Windsor, 1422—1461.**—By the deaths of Henry V. and Charles VI. within two months of each other, the infant *Henry of Windsor* became King of England and France; though in the latter country there was a rival King, the Dauphin, who reigned at Bourges as *Charles VII.*, and kept up the war with *John, Duke of Bedford*, who was Regent of France for his nephew Henry. In 1428 the English began the siege of *Orleans*, and its fall, which would lay the Dauphin's provinces open to them, seemed at hand, when France was delivered as by a miracle.

From the village of Domremy a peasant girl of sixteen, *Jeanne Darc* by name, or, as she is commonly called in English, *Joan of Arc*, came to Charles, declaring herself sent by Heaven to raise the siege of Orleans and to conduct him to *Rheims* for his coronation. Rheims, the crowning-place of the French Kings, was then in the English power. Mounted and armed like a knight, Joan led a force to Orleans, and with a handful of men succeeded in entering the city. From thence the French made assaults upon the forts with which the besiegers had surrounded the place. Though her hand never took a life, "the Maid" was foremost in battle, and received an arrow-wound while mounting a scaling-ladder to the attack of one of the forts. It was not long before the English commander, *William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk*, had to raise the siege; and thenceforth the stout English soldiers quailed before the "*Maid of Orleans.*" Her mission in their eyes was not from Heaven, but from Hell, and for that they feared her all the more. Fresh successes increased her reputation: the Earl of Suffolk was captured at the storming of *Jargeau*, and *John, Lord Talbot*, one of the best of the English captains, encountering her, June 18, 1429, at *Patay*, was defeated and taken prisoner. As she had promised, Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims. But in the next year, while making a sally from the besieged town of Compiègne, she was taken prisoner by the Burgundians, who sold her to the English, Charles never so much as offering to ransom her. The English Council delivered her to be tried at Rouen on charges of heresy before an ecclesiastical court presided over by Peter Cauchon, Bishop of Beauvais; and French churchmen lent themselves to her destruction. Condemned as a heretic, the heroic Maid was burned alive in the market-place of Rouen, May 30, 1431, a victim to the ingratitude of her friends and the brutality of her foes. But she had awakened the

spirit of France, and the English began to lose ground. The Duke of Burgundy in 1435 made peace on his own account with France; in the same year the Regent Bedford died, and gradually both the inheritance of Henry II. and the subsequent conquests were lost past recovery. In 1452 indeed the people of Aquitaine and Gascony, and especially those of Bordeaux, which had capitulated to Charles in the previous year, sought to return to the milder government of the English King. But the veteran Talbot, now *Earl of Shrewsbury*, who was sent to their aid, was overthrown the next year in a rash attack upon the French army before *Castillon*. His front ranks were mowed down with artillery, the remainder were worsted hand to hand, and Talbot was slain as he lay wounded on the field. Bordeaux, which held out until every other stronghold had yielded, was forced again to surrender to the French. To England nothing was left but Calais, with its surrounding territory, and the barren title of King of France; and thus ended the *Hundred Years' War*.

2. **Government in England.**—Meanwhile in England there had been nothing but jealousies and struggles among the great men. First, Henry's uncle, *Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester*, who was Protector during the King's early childhood, strove for the mastery with *Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester*, and afterwards *Cardinal*. Beaufort saw that it would be best to make peace, while "the Good Duke Humfrey," as he was called, was for keeping up the war. King Henry, gentle and of weak intellect, had little more authority as a man than he had had as a child, and after his marriage in 1445, his wife *Margaret* and her favourite counsellor, the *Marquess* (late *Earl*) *of Suffolk*, had the chief power. Margaret was the daughter of *René*, nominal Duke of Anjou and King of Sicily, and brother in-law of the French King. The match was negotiated by Suffolk, in hopes that it would

lead to the lasting peace desired by King Henry; and, as its price, he consented to surrender Anjou and Maine. Such terms were not likely to be acceptable to the nation, though its murmurs did not become loud till after the death of Duke Humfrey in 1447. Suffolk had secretly accused the Duke of treason, and the popular suspicion was that he had procured his murder. Maine was not given up till the French sent an army into it; and when loss after loss befell the English arms in France, the indignation against the minister who thus misconducted affairs rose to fury. At last in 1450, the Duke (as he now was) of Suffolk being impeached in Parliament, the King, to satisfy the people, ordered him to leave England for five years; but his enemies would not let him escape so easily. He was intercepted at sea by a vessel called the *Nicolas of the Tower*, and his head was struck off.

3. **Jack Cade's Rebellion.**—The murder of the Duke of Suffolk was followed by an insurrection of the people of Kent under one *John* or *Jack Cade*, who called himself by the more dignified name of *John Mortimer*, professing to be a kinsman of the *Duke of York*, whose mother was a Mortimer. The insurgents, to the number of 20,000, encamped on Blackheath, and from thence sent to the King a statement of their grievances—the maladministration of the government, the evil counsellors of the King, the oppressive action of the Statute of Labourers, the extortions of the sheriffs, the interference of the great men with the freedom of county elections, and sundry other matters. Sir Humfrey Stafford, pursuing the insurgents to Sevenoaks, was there defeated and slain; after which the King's army, which at heart sympathized with the insurgents, broke up, and the Kentish captain, whose forces were swelled by bands from Sussex, Surrey, and Essex, entered London unresisted. Gallantly arrayed like a lord or a knight, he rode through the streets to London-stone, which

he struck with his sword, saying, "Now is Mortimer lord of this city." Getting *Lord Saye*, one of the King's most obnoxious ministers, into his power, he had him beheaded in Cheapside. Saye's son-in-law, William Crowmer, sheriff of Kent, who was accused of extortion, underwent the same fate. For three days Cade was master of the city; but the plundering of some houses turned the citizens against him, and with the aid of soldiers from the Tower they defended London Bridge against his re-entry, he being then on the Southwark side. After fighting all night upon the bridge, most of his followers dispersed on the consent of the Council to receive their petition, which had before been refused, and upon the grant of pardon. Cade, who remained in arms, in the end fled into Sussex, and being pursued and taken by Alexander Iden, the new sheriff of Kent, received a mortal wound in the scuffle.

4. **The Wars of York and Lancaster, or of the Roses.**—There was now a contest for power between the Dukes of Somerset and of York. *Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset*, was the representative of an illegitimate branch of the House of Lancaster. Richard II. had indeed, with the assent of Parliament, conferred upon the *Beauforts* the rights of lawful birth, but there was a doubt whether they and their descendants were not still debarred from succeeding to the throne. Somerset was the favourite at Court, but the loss of Normandy, where he had been governor, being laid to his charge, he was dis liked by the people. *Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York*, was the son of the Earl of Cambridge who had been beheaded in the last reign, and he inherited, through his mother the heiress of Mortimer, the claim of the line of Clarence upon the crown. As Regent of France and Lieutenant of Ireland, he had shown high abilities; his name was ever in the mouths of the discontented, and his exclusion from the King's

councils had for some time been a ground of complaint. In 1454, the King having become imbecile, the Lords in Parliament made the Duke of York Protector; but within a year Henry recovered the small faculties with which nature had endowed him, and Somerset was again in the ascendant. York, supported by the two *Richard Nevilles*, Earls, the one of *Salisbury*, and the other of *Warwick*, then took up arms, and overthrew and killed his rival in the battle of *St. Albans*, May 22, 1455. There was a hollow peace for a time, but in 1459 civil strife again broke out. These contests are called the *Wars of the Roses*, because the badge of the House of Lancaster was a *red rose*, and that of the House of York a *white* one. At first things went ill for York, who fled to Ireland, while the Earls took refuge in Calais, of which town Warwick was governor. But the next year the Earls came back and gained a complete victory at *Northampton*, July 10, 1460, Henry being captured, and his wife and son flying to Scotland. In the autumn a Parliament met, in which the Duke of York laid before the Lords his claim upon the crown. The matter was settled by a compromise. Henry was to reign for his life, and Richard of York to succeed him, Henry's only son *Edward* being thus set aside. But many nobles still upheld the interests of the young Prince, and a Lancastrian army gathered together in the North. York, with inferior forces, encountering the Lancastrians near *Wakefield*, was completely defeated, himself falling in the fight. With him perished his son *Edmund, Earl of Rutland*, a youth of seventeen, who, according to some, was killed in cold blood by Lord Clifford, in revenge for the death of Clifford's father at St. Albans. "Thy father slew mine," cried Clifford, as he stabbed the youth, "and so will I do thee and all thy kin." The Earl of Salisbury was captured and put to death, and York's head, encircled with a paper crown, was set on

the walls of the city from which he took his title. His death was soon avenged in the bloody fight of *Mortimer's Cross*, in Herefordshire, by his eldest son *Edward*, now *Duke of York*, who followed up his victory by beheading the King's stepfather, Sir Owen Tudor, and many other prisoners. Meanwhile the northern army, which had been joined by Margaret, advanced upon London, defeating on the way, in a second battle at *St. Albans*, the Earl of Warwick, and rescuing the King, whom the flying Yorkists had left behind them. But the Queen's army, largely composed of Border plunderers, wasted time and roused hostility by pillaging; while Edward, joining Warwick, boldly marched into London, where, in a council of Lords Spiritual and Temporal, he was declared King, and his claim being further acknowledged by a meeting of the citizens and common people, he was enthroned in Westminster Hall, March 4, 1461. Thus ended the reign, though not the life, of the unfortunate Henry, who is to be remembered as the founder of *Eton College*, and of *King's College, Cambridge.* His wife was the first foundress of *Queen's College* in that University.

5. **County Elections.**—In 1429 was passed a statute restricting the right of voting in the election of knights of the shire. These elections, according to the words of the statute, had "of late been made by very great, outrageous, and excessive number of people * * * of which the most part was of people of small substance, and of no value." It was therefore enacted that thenceforth the electoral right should be confined to freeholders of lands or tenements to the yearly value at least of forty shillings.

6. **Attainder.**—In these troublous times it became the practice for the victorious party to get an *Act of Attainder* passed against its defeated adversaries. In legal phrase, a man under sentence of death was said to be *attaint;* and if *attaint of high treason,* he at

once forfeited his lands, he could inherit nothing, and transmit nothing to his heir. An *Act of Attainder* was an Act of Parliament attainting a man of treason or felony. By this he was placed in the same position as if he had been sentenced to death by the ordinary process of law. Thus his lands could be at once seized, and he himself be hanged or beheaded when caught. The Queen's party set the example by attainting, in a Parliament held at Coventry in 1459, the Duke of York and his chief adherents. In this case the attainted men were safe out of the way, and as soon as the battle of Northampton had thrown power into their hands, a friendly Parliament *reversed* the Acts of its predecessor.

CHAPTER XXIV.

EDWARD IV.

Edward IV.; battle of Towton (1)—*efforts of Margaret; overthrow of the Lancastrians* (2)—*marriage of Edward; Clarence and Warwick change sides; restoration of Henry; return of Edward; battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury; death of Henry VI.; Richard, Duke of Gloucester* (3)—*invasion of France* (4)—*death of Clarence; death of Edward* (5).

1. **House of York. Edward IV., 1461—1483.**—Marching to the North, where the Lancastrian forces now lay, *Edward* completed his triumph by the victory of *Towton*, near Tadcaster. The fighting began about four in the afternoon, was continued into the night, and was renewed the next morning, Palm Sunday, March 29, in the midst of a snowstorm which blew in the faces of the Lancastrians. These at last gave way, and, quarter having been forbidden, the slaughter was great. Henry and his family, who had awaited within the walls of York the issue of the

fight, escaped to Scotland. The conqueror soon returned to Westminster to be crowned and to hold his first Parliament, which passed Acts of forfeiture and attainder, including the late King, his wife and son, and all who had been active in their cause, from dukes and earls down to yeomen and tradesmen. The new King, who was about nineteen at his accession, passed for the most accomplished, and until he grew unwieldy, the handsomest man of his time. He had the art of making himself popular; but he was bloodthirsty, unforgiving, and licentious.

2. **Overthrow of the Lancastrians.**—For three years Margaret and her friends, flitting between England, Scotland, and the Continent, maintained a fitful struggle in the North. A foreign chronicler of the time tells a story that during her wanderings Margaret fell among thieves, and was plundered of all she had. While they quarrelled over their booty, she escaped with her young son Edward into the depths of the forest. There she was met by another robber, to whom, in desperation, she presented the boy, saying, "Here, my friend, save the son of thy King." The outlaw's generosity was touched, and he led them to a place of safety. The Lancastrians were at last crushed for a time by the defeats of *Hedgeley Moor*, near Wooler, and *Hexham*, where the *Duke of Somerset*, son of the rival of Richard of York, was taken and beheaded. King Henry, after this last defeat, lay for more than a year hidden in Lancashire and Westmoreland; but he was finally betrayed and brought prisoner to the Tower. The ascendancy of the White Rose brought great suffering upon the Lancastrians, their lands being made over to Yorkists, and themselves reduced to exile and poverty. *Henry Holland, Duke of Exeter*, concealing his name, is known to have followed the Duke of Burgundy's train barefoot, and begging from door to door.

3. **Wars of the Roses Renewed.**—In the

autumn of 1464, Edward avowed his marriage with *Elizabeth*, daughter of Richard Wydevile, Lord Rivers, and widow of Sir John Grey, a Lancastrian. Her beauty, according to the common tale, won his heart when she was a suppliant to him for the restoration of her late husband's estates. Honours and riches were showered upon her kindred—father, brother, sisters, sons—with a profusion which offended the old nobility, and especially the Earl of Warwick and his brothers. Warwick, desiring an alliance with France, had planned that Edward should marry the French King's sister-in-law, while Edward's new advisers preferred the friendship of the Duke of Burgundy, *Charles the Bold*, who in 1468 married the English King's sister *Margaret*. The Burgundian alliance was well-pleasing to the London merchants who traded with the Duke's subjects in the Netherlands, but not so to Warwick, who hated Duke Charles. Warwick was not a man who could be safely provoked. He was exceeding wealthy, his hospitality endeared him to the people, and he could raise an army at his word. In his various mansions 30,000 people are said to have been daily fed, and when he stayed in London, whoever had any acquaintance in his household might come and take as much meat as he could carry off on a dagger. To aid him in his schemes against the King, Warwick drew over Edward's brother *George, Duke of Clarence*, to whom he gave his daughter *Isabel* in marriage. An insurrection in Yorkshire was fomented by the Earl with such success that for a short time Edward was a prisoner in the hands of his over-powerful subject. But the King soon escaped or was let go; and the failure of a second revolt in 1470 obliged Warwick and his son-in-law to fly into France. Ere long they returned, and proclaimed King Henry; for at the French court Warwick had become reconciled to his old foe Queen Margaret, and had married his daughter *Anne* to her son Edward. The people

gathered to Warwick in crowds, and it was now King Edward's turn to fly the country; while his wife took refuge in the Sanctuary at Westminster, where she was protected by the religious feeling of the age; and Henry was replaced on the throne. Edward found shelter in the dominions of his brother-in-law of Burgundy, who privately supplied him with money and ships for his return. It was a time of sudden revolutions. On the 14th March, 1471, Edward came back with a small force, landing, like Henry of Bolingbroke before him, at Ravenspurne, and with equal success. His brother Clarence returned to his side; the citizens readily admitted him into London; and from thence he marched to encounter near *Barnet* the Earl of Warwick and his brother the *Marquess of Montacute.* The battle began about daybreak on Easter Sunday, April 14, in a mist so thick that the combatants could scarcely see each other; and after six hours' confused fighting Edward gained the victory, Warwick—"*the King-maker*," as historians call him—and Montacute being both slain. The struggle was not quite over, for that same day Queen Margaret landed, and on the 4th May her army encountered that of Edward at *Tewkesbury*, where it was utterly defeated, she herself being captured soon after. Her son Edward was killed: the common story is that he was brought before his victorious namesake, who asked him how he durst be so bold as to make war in his realm. The youth made answer that he came to recover his inheritance, whereupon the King struck him in the face with his gauntlet, and the King's brothers, or their attendants, forthwith despatched him with their swords. The victory was followed up by the beheading of *Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset*—the third of that title who had perished in these wars—and many other prisoners. King Henry, who had been again imprisoned in the Tower, died shortly after—of a broken heart, as the Yorkists said, or murdered,

according to Lancastrian rumour, by Edward's youngest brother, *Richard, Duke of Gloucester.* Queen Margaret, after four years' captivity, was ransomed by King *Louis XI.* of France, and died in her own country of Anjou. Anne Neville, widow of the slain Prince Edward, married the Duke of Gloucester, who is known to us by the nickname of "Crookback Richard," and as one of the greatest of villains. Ambitious and unscrupulous he certainly was; but as the detailed accounts of him were written after his death, and in the interest of his adversaries, we cannot depend upon them, even in so small a matter as the crook in his back. The truth as to his appearance seems to be that he was a small, slight man, with one shoulder rather higher than the other.

4. **Invasion of France.**—Having nothing else to do, the King determined on the renewal of the claim to the French crown. Not satisfied with the large sums which Parliament readily granted to him for this object, but still not venturing to levy taxes on his sole authority, Edward obtained from wealthy men, who did not know how to refuse the King's requests, additional sums under the name of "*benevolences*," because they were supposed to be gifts offered out of good-will. Everyone gave, as was remarked, "what he was willing, or rather what he was not willing, to give." The invasion however came to nothing. The crafty Louis XI., who did not want to fight, persuaded his enemy to go quietly home in consideration of receiving a large annual pension—a tribute, as the English chose to call it—and, to the disgust of Edward's soldiers, a truce for seven years was made in August, 1475, at *Picquigny*, near Amiens.

5. **Death of Edward.**—The House of York now seemed firm upon the throne, but it was a house divided against itself. The Duke of Clarence was again at enmity with his royal brother, to whom in 1478 he gave offence which led to his committal

to the Tower. Edward, himself appearing as accuser, impeached him of treason before the Peers, who found him guilty. About ten days later it was given out that the Duke had died in the Tower—how was never certainly known, but a wild story flew about that he had been drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine. Edward himself died April 9, 1483, leaving two sons, *Edward, Prince of Wales*, and *Richard, Duke of York;* one twelve, the other ten years old.

CHAPTER XXV.

EDWARD V.

Edward V.; seizure of power by the Dukes of Gloucester and Buckingham (1)—*beheading of Lord Hastings; the Duke of Gloucester raised to the throne* (2).

1. **Edward V., April 9—June 22, 1483. Protectorate of Gloucester.**—*Edward V.* reigned less than three months, and was never crowned. At the time of his father's death he was living at Ludlow Castle, surrounded by his mother's kinsmen and friends. But on his road to London, he was overtaken at Stony Stratford by his uncle *Richard, Duke of Gloucester*, who had come up from the North, and by *Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham*, the chiefs of the party opposed to the Wydeviles. These two, by a sudden stroke of treachery and violence, arrested four of the young King's retinue—his mother's brother, *Earl Rivers*, his mother's son, *Lord Richard Grey*, and two gentlemen of his household—whom they sent prisoners into Yorkshire; and, ordering the rest of the royal train to disperse, they, with their own followers, brought the King to London. The poor boy, seeing his friends thus taken from him,

"wept and was nothing content, but it booted not." The Dukes accused Rivers and the Greys of a design to usurp the government; and the fact that large store of armour and weapons was found among the baggage of the royal attendants was generally thought to justify the arrests. The Queen-Mother, as soon as she heard what had happened, fled with her youngest son Richard, Duke of York, and her five daughters, to the Sanctuary at Westminster. The King was lodged in the Tower, then a palace as well as a fortress and a prison; and the Duke of Gloucester was appointed *Protector.*

2. **Deposition of Edward.**—So far, Gloucester and his supporters had been united by a common hatred of the Wydeviles; but it is plain that they now disagreed among themselves. *Lord Hastings* in particular, who had been a bitter enemy of the Queen's friends, seems to have repented, and to have secretly gone over to their side. On June 13, by order of the Protector, Hastings was seized at the council-board in the Tower, and put to death out of hand. "By St. Paul," the Protector was reported to have said, "I will not to dinner till I see thy head off;" and a log of wood which lay on the Tower Green served as a block for the hurried execution. The same afternoon proclamation was made that Hastings and his friends had conspired to murder the Dukes of Gloucester and Buckingham. Rivers, Grey, and their two fellow-prisoners were, without trial, beheaded at Pontefract. The little Duke of York was removed from his mother in the Sanctuary to join his brother in the Tower, and thus Gloucester had both his nephews in his hands. On Sunday, June 22, Dr. Ralf Shaw, a preacher of some note, and brother to the Mayor of London, preached a sermon at *Paul's Cross*—a cross and pulpit which then stood at the north-east corner of St. Paul's Churchyard—setting forth that the children were illegitimate on the

ground that when their father married Elizabeth Wydevile, he was under a *precontract* to marry another woman. According to the ecclesiastical law, this would make his marriage with Elizabeth void. The Lord Protector was pointed out by the preacher as the rightful inheritor of the Crown. The claim thus first put forward was accepted by an assembly of Lords and Commons, which was practically a Parliament, though owing to some informality it was not afterwards allowed that name; a deputation of lords and knights, joined by the Mayor, aldermen, and chief citizens, desired the Protector to take upon him the royal dignity; and on June 26, the Duke of Gloucester sat in Westminster Hall as *King Richard III.* of England.

CHAPTER XXVI.

RICHARD III.

Richard III.; disappearance of the sons of Edward (1)—*the Earl of Richmond; beheading of Buckingham* (2)—*legislation* (3)—*death of Anne; invasion of Richmond; battle of Bosworth; fall of Richard* (4)—*printing* (5)—*literature* (6).

1. **Richard III., 1483—1485.**—*Richard* and *Anne* his wife were crowned at Westminster, July 6, 1483, the preparations which had been made for the coronation of the nephew serving for those of the uncle. The new King then set out for York, where he and the Queen, with crowns upon their heads, walked through the streets in a grand procession. He was already liked in the North, where he had lived for some time; and all this display was designed to increase his popularity. But while he was thus

spending his time, there arose much murmuring in the south and west at the captivity of Edward's sons; and at last Buckingham, hitherto Richard's staunch ally, seems to have undertaken to head a rising for their release. At this moment it was reported that the children were no longer living. In the next reign, it was stated that *Sir James Tyrrel* and *John Dighton* had confessed that on the refusal of *Sir Robert Brackenbury*, Constable of the Tower, to put his young prisoners to death, Richard had bidden that the keys of the Tower should be delivered to Tyrrel for twenty-four hours, and that Tyrrel's groom Dighton, together with one *Miles Forrest*, had smothered the sleeping children in their bed, and then buried them at the stair-foot. It was further rumoured that by Richard's desire a priest of Brackenbury's household had removed the bodies elsewhere. Some however have doubted the murder, notwithstanding the apparent confirmation of the popular belief by a discovery made 191 years later of the bones of two boys, of about the age of the young princes, lying buried in the White Tower under the staircase leading to the chapel. The reigning King, Charles II., had them removed to Henry the Seventh's Chapel as the remains of Edward V. and Richard, Duke of York.

2. **Revolt of Buckingham.**—The league now formed against Richard consisted of Buckingham, many old Lancastrians, and the *Marquess of Dorset*, Elizabeth Wydevile's son, with others of the Wydevile party, acting in concert with *Henry Tudor*, *Earl of Richmond*, who on his father's side was a grandson of Owen Tudor and Katharine, widow of Henry V., and on his mother's a descendant, through the Beaufort line, of John of Gaunt, and who, in the absence of any better representative of the House of Lancaster, was accepted as its head. To unite the Yorkists and Lancastrians, it was agreed that he should marry *Elizabeth*, daughter of Edward IV. Richmond was

then a refugee in Britanny, and the present revolt did not better his position; for Buckingham, deserted by his followers, was betrayed, and beheaded at Salisbury; the other confederates dispersed; and Richmond, whose fleet had been scattered by a storm, did not venture to land. A few of those concerned in the revolt were put to death; among these was, if we may believe the common tale, one Collingbourne, who had made a couplet upon Richard and his three most trusty friends, Ratcliffe, Catesby, and Lord Lovel:—

"The Rat, the Cat, and Lovel our Dog,
Rule all England under the Hog."

Richard's favourite badge was a wild boar, and the popular belief was that the rimer lost his head for thus insulting him. Henry's mother *Margaret Beaufort, Countess of Richmond*, who had been the moving spirit of the rebellion, was leniently treated out of consideration for her third husband *Lord Stanley*, of whose loyalty Richard thought himself assured.

3. **Legislation.**—In January, 1484, a Parliament was held, by which a statute was passed forbidding the exaction of "benevolences." Another Act, while laying restrictions upon foreign traders, expressly excepts from its operation trade in books "written or printed," which were allowed to be brought in and sold by men of any nation. The statutes of this reign were the first ever printed.

4. **Overthrow and Death of Richard.**—In April, 1484, died the King's only child *Edward*, whereupon Richard declared his sister's son, *John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln*, his heir. In the next year, Queen Anne died, broken down by sorrow for the loss of her son, or, as Richard's enemies afterwards chose to suggest, of poison given by her husband. In after days, men told how Richard was haunted by the memory of his murdered nephews; he knew no peace of mind, his hand was ever on his dagger,

his rest broken by fearful dreams. Whether he was troubled by imaginary dangers or not, he had a real one in Richmond, who had lately bound himself by oath, if he obtained the crown, to marry Elizabeth of York, and had thus taken a great step towards the union of Yorkists and Lancastrians. On August 7, 1485, Richmond, with a body of adventurers, mostly Normans, landed at Milford Haven, and, advancing into the country, was met by Richard, with an army double in number. A story is told that *John Howard, Duke of Norfolk*, received a warning, which however he disregarded, against supporting the King. It was in two lines written on the gate of the house where he lodged :—

"Jack of Norfolk, be not too bold,
For Dickon thy master is bought and sold."

This was true enough ; for Lord Stanley, who could muster many followers in Cheshire and Lancashire, had, while holding office under Richard, secretly promised his support to Richmond. Stanley to the last moment delayed declaring himself, because his eldest son was in the hands of the King, who, his suspicions being now awakened, threatened that the son should die if the father played false. *Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland*, though he brought the forces of the North to the royal muster, was likewise at heart disaffected to Richard. When the battle began near *Market Bosworth*, Aug. 22, Lord Stanley in the midst of the encounter joined Richmond, while Northumberland looked on without stirring a foot. "Jack of Norfolk," true to his master, fell fighting gallantly ; and as a last effort, the King made a desperate charge upon Richmond's body-guard. Cleaving the skull of one knight and unhorsing another, he cut his way to his rival, when *Sir William Stanley*, who had hitherto held aloof, brought up his followers to Richmond's rescue, and Richard, crying

"Treason! treason!" fell overpowered by numbers. The crown which had been struck from his helmet was picked up on the field, and set by Lord Stanley on the head of Richmond, who was hailed King. Richard's body was thrown across a horse, and carried to the Grey Friars' Church at Leicester, where it was buried with scant ceremony.

5. **Printing.**—Troublous as was the fifteenth century, it was an age of increasing interest in literature and art. Princes and nobles began to take pride in forming libraries, and encouraging the labours of authors, copyists, and illuminators. Some hundreds of books were given by the "Good Duke Humfrey" to the University of Oxford. A missal executed for his brother the Duke of Bedford still remains as one of the choicest productions of its age. Henry VI. had a valuable library, many of the manuscripts belonging to which are to be seen in the British Museum. But so long as books could only be multiplied in manuscript they were of necessity both scarce and dear. The monks were at first copyists as well as authors, but after a while copying became a trade, and books grew somewhat cheaper. Under Edward IV. the charge of a copyist was twopence a leaf for prose and a penny for verse of about thirty lines to the page. Adding the price of the paper, we may reckon that a good copy of a prose work cost, at the present value of money, about two shillings a leaf. Paper had begun to take the place of parchment about the middle of the fourteenth century. But in the reign of Edward IV. a great invention was introduced, which put an end to this laborious copying. About 1476, *William Caxton*, a native of the Weald of Kent, who had learned the new art of *printing* abroad—at Bruges, it is supposed, where he had been a merchant—came home, and set up a printing-press in Westminster. He had been in the service of the Duchess Margaret of Burgundy, for whom he

had translated a French romance; and he now received countenance from King Edward and his court. The Queen's brother, the accomplished *Anthony Wydevile, Earl Rivers*, translated for Caxton's press a French work, "The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers." Caxton also printed a translation from Cicero, which had been made by *John Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester*, the foremost of the literary nobles of the day. Worcester, who was a Yorkist, had got a name for cruelty, and the Lancastrians rejoiced when, during the brief restoration of King Henry in 1470, he was brought to the block; but Caxton only remembered him as a scholar. "The axe," he wrote mournfully, "then did at one blow cut off more learning than was left in the heads of all the surviving lords and nobility." Caxton died about 1491.

6. **Literature.** — Notwithstanding the growing interest in literature, the fifteenth century did not give us any very famous writers. *John Lydgate*, a monk of Bury St. Edmund's, who flourished in the reign of Henry VI., though not a man of much genius, was a favourite poet in his day. *Reginald Pecock*, Bishop of Chichester, in the same reign wrote in defence of the Church against the Lollards, but, being adjudged to have himself fallen into heresy, was obliged to burn his books publicly at Paul's Cross, and was deprived of his bishopric. *Sir John Fortescue*, Chief Justice of the King's Bench, wrote for the instruction of King Henry's son Edward, to whom he was governor, a Latin treatise upon the laws of England. In this he impresses upon his pupil that the kingly power in England is not absolute, but limited, and that the country owed its prosperity to its freedom. The *Morte Darthur*, or *Death of Arthur*, a fine prose romance, or rather collection of romances, about Arthur and his knights, founded upon French fictions, was composed by *Sir Thomas Malory*, and printed in 1485 by Caxton. In the preface Caxton tells

us how he had been ofttimes urged by "many noble and divers gentlemen" to print the history of King Arthur, "which ought most to be remembered amongst us Englishmen tofore all other Christian Kings"—so completely had the British Arthur, turned by romance-writers into the likeness of a thirteenth or fourteenth-century King, become the hero of those English against whose ancestors he had fought. *Julyans Barnes*, or *Juliana Berners*, said to have been prioress of Sopewell nunnery, was the compiler of a rimed treatise upon hunting, which forms part of the *Book of St. Albans*, so called from the place where, in 1486, it was printed. Towards the close of the century some of the popular ballads began to be printed. The spirited ballad of *Chevy Chase*, which recounts a fierce fray between the Percy and Douglas of the days of Henry IV., may perhaps belong to the end of the fifteenth century, though probably not exactly in the form in which we have it. There is another and better-known version of the same story, which is more modern still. Among ballad heroes, *Robin Hood*, a legendary captain of outlaws and deer-stealers, frequenting Nottinghamshire and Yorkshire, stands chief. Whether he had any real existence is uncertain, but he was a subject for popular song as far back as the days of Edward III. In the *Vision of Piers Plowman*, one of the allegorical characters, *Sloth*, owns that he does not know his *paternoster* (the Lord's Prayer) perfectly, but he does know "rimes of Robin Hood." A series of ballads entitled "A Little Geste of Robin Hood," which places its hero in the days of some King Edward, was printed early in the reign of Henry VIII., and shows strongly the growing dislike to the higher clergy, whom the bold outlaw is represented as making his special prey.

CHAPTER XXVII.

HENRY VII.

Henry Tudor; Yorkist risings; Lambert Simnel (1)—*foreign affairs* (2)—*Richard Plantagenet or Perkin Warbeck; execution of Stanley; surrender of Perkin; execution of Perkin and Warwick* (3)—*marriages of Henry's children* (4)—*Henry's government; story of the Earl of Oxford; Empson and Dudley; death of Henry* (5)—*allegiance to the King* de facto (6)—*The Cabots* (7).

1. House of Tudor. Henry VII., 1485-1509.—The coronation of *Henry Tudor* on the battle-field was followed up by a more formal one at Westminster. Without entering into questions of title, Parliament settled the Crown on Henry and his heirs, and in order to unite the rival Roses, pressed him to carry out the intended marriage with *Elizabeth of York*, which he was supposed to have put off in order that it might not be thought that he reigned by right of his wife. The marriage accordingly took place Jan. 18, 1486, but it is said that his dislike to the House of York led him to treat her with coldness. Another representative of that House, young *Edward, Earl of Warwick*, son of George, Duke of Clarence, he at once removed from Yorkshire, where Richard III. had placed him in captivity, to the Tower; and altogether the King showed himself so unfriendly to the Yorkists that within a year of his accession they made an attempt at revolt, in which Lord Lovel, the "dog," was one of the leaders. This was soon quelled; but the next year the Yorkists tried a new plan. A youth appeared, asserting himself to be the Earl of Warwick, escaped from the Tower. Margaret, the widowed Duchess of Burgundy, and sister of Edward IV., furnished the Earl of Lincoln and Lord Lovel with troops to support him

and he was crowned King in Ireland, where the House of York had always been beloved. But few joined him when he landed in England, and his German and Irish army was overthrown by Henry's troops at Stoke-upon-Trent, June 16, 1487. The Earl of Lincoln and most of the Yorkist leaders fell; Lovel fled, and was never heard of again; while the pretended Warwick, who was one *Lambert Simnel*, son of a joiner at Oxford, was captured, and treated with contemptuous mercy, Henry making him a scullion in his kitchen.

2. **Foreign Affairs.** — In character Henry was cautious, crafty, fond of money, and ingenious in acquiring it. Being ever in fear of a pretender to his throne, he was anxious for the friendship of foreign princes, in order that they might not help rebels against him. More especially he sought the alliance of Spain, the rival power to France; and though he had no love for war, he joined in 1489 with the Spaniards in sending troops to help Britanny, then at strife with France. The English being well disposed to fight the French, the King got subsidies from Parliament, renewed the extortion of money by "benevolences," and under a show of war—for he did as little as he could—filled his coffers. At last, in 1492, he passed over to France, laid siege to Boulogne for a few days, made peace, and led his murmuring army back. Besides the public treaty there was a private one, by which the King of France bound himself to pay a hundred and forty-nine thousand pounds to the King of England.

3. **Perkin Warbeck.**—Meanwhile a new claimant to the throne had appeared, styling himself *Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York.* According to his own account, he was the second son of Edward IV., and had been saved alive when his brother Edward V. was put to death; according to Henry, he was one *Pierce Osbeck*, more commonly called *Perkin Warbeck*, of Tournay; and people are still in doubt whether he

was an impostor or not. He first showed himself in Cork, where he was well received; he then went to the French court, and thence to Flanders, where the Duchess Margaret of Burgundy received him with open arms. The King discovering, by means of spies, that communications were carried on between the friends of "Richard of York" in England, and those abroad, some executions took place, amongst which was that of the Lord Chamberlain Sir William Stanley, who had saved Henry's life on Bosworth Field. Probably he really was concerned in the conspiracy; but the King's known greed of money caused a suspicion that Stanley only suffered in order that his enormous wealth might be forfeited to the Crown. In 1495 "Richard" passed into Scotland, where the King, *James IV.*, gave him his kinswoman Katharine Gordon in marriage. About two years later the adventurer, landing in Cornwall, was there joined by many of the people; but on the approach of the royal army he left his followers, and took sanctuary, surrendering in a few days on promise that his life should be spared. His beautiful wife, "the White Rose," as she was called, became an attendant on Henry's Queen. For two years "Richard" lived a prisoner; once he made his escape, but being brought back, was set publicly in the stocks, made to read aloud a confession of imposture, and then cast into a dark cell in the Tower. In 1499 he and a fellow-captive, the Earl of Warwick, who, for no crime but his birth, had lain for fourteen years in the Tower, were tried and put to death on charges of high treason. The two young men, as was alleged at the Earl's trial, had planned escape, after which the adventurer was to be again proclaimed as King Richard IV. But the report went that the Earl was sacrificed to Henry's long-cherished scheme for wedding his son to a Spanish princess, whose father, *King Ferdinand of Aragon*, crafty and careful as Henry himself, was

believed to have said plainly that he did not consider the alliance a safe one as long as Warwick lived.

4. **Marriages of Henry's children.**—In 1501, at the age of fifteen, the King's eldest son, named *Arthur* in memory of the Welsh hero from whom Henry claimed descent, was married to *Katharine*, daughter of King Ferdinand of Aragon, whose power extended over nearly the whole of the present Spain. But Arthur dying within five months' time, his young widow was contracted to the King's second son, *Henry*, a dispensation being obtained from the Pope to legalize this union with a brother's wife. With intent to cement a peace between England and Scotland, the King's eldest daughter *Margaret* was married in 1503 to James IV. of Scotland; and this politic alliance proved in the end the means of uniting the two kingdoms of Britain.

5. **Henry's Government.**—Under the Tudors there came a change over the spirit of the government. The tendency now was to make the King all-powerful. Mindful of the feeble rule of Henry VI. and the turmoil of the civil wars, people were willing to put up with stretches of power on the part of the sovereign, if only he would maintain order and keep a tight hand on the nobles. This task was the easier, because war and the headsman's axe, attainder and forfeiture had thinned and broken the old nobility; and weakened as they were, Henry watched them jealously. It had long been a practice for the great noblemen to give "liveries" and "badges" to the gentlemen and yeomen of their neighbourhood. There was a sort of bond between the great man and those who, on occasions of ceremony, donned his livery; it marked them as his "retainers," entitled to his protection, and ready to fight in his quarrel. The law indeed forbade his giving liveries to any but actual members of his household, but nobody dreamed of observing it. Once, as the tale goes, Henry was

entertained by *John de Vere, Earl of Oxford*, who had fought for him at Bosworth. Two lines of liveried gentlemen and yeomen were drawn up for the King to pass through. The Earl smiled when asked if they all belonged to his household—they were mostly his retainers, he said, who had come to see the King. "By my faith, my Lord," quoth Henry, "I thank you for your good cheer, but I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." And the Earl, who had thought to show honour to the King, had to pay a fine of £10,000. Often the great men were so strong in their own neighbourhood that they could bend the law to their will: they bribed or overawed sheriffs and juries, and no one durst go against them. A statute was therefore enacted which gave authority to the Chancellor, the Treasurer, and the Keeper of the Privy Seal, with others of the King's Council, to call such offenders before them for punishment. In the latter part of his reign, Henry's avarice grew upon him — when gold coin once went into his strong-boxes, it never came out again, said the Spanish Ambassador—and he made himself hateful by his extortions. His chief instruments were two lawyers, *Sir Richard Empson* and *Edmund Dudley*, who raked up long-forgotten statutes and old claims of feudal services in order to exact fines and forfeitures for their transgression or omission. The whole course of justice was wrested to furnish pretences for extorting money, and the employment of false witnesses and packed juries rendered it hardly possible for the most innocent to escape. Henry thus added to his hoard, and kept his subjects from growing dangerously rich. He died April 21, 1509, at the palace of Shene, which he had rebuilt with great magnificence, and had called, after his earlier title, *Richmond*. He was buried in his own beautiful chapel in Westminster Abbey.

6. **Allegiance.**—The uncertainty of Henry's title caused the passing of an important statute, by which it was declared to be the duty of a subject to serve the sovereign *for the time being*, and that no one, for so doing, should be convict or attaint of treason. This was to prevent the recurrence of the state of things which had existed during the Wars of the Roses, when men were punished at one time for following York, and at another for following Lancaster. In legal phrase, it protected those who served the King *de facto* (King by fact, actual King) even though he might not be King *de jure* (King by right).

7. **The Cabots.**—There was now springing up a spirit of maritime enterprise which moved men to go in search of new lands beyond the ocean. The best navigators of the time were the Italians and Portuguese; and the first European who is known for certain to have sailed to the mainland of America was of Italian origin, though born at Bristol. This was *Sebastian Cabot*, who, accompanied probably by his father *John Gabotto* or *Cabot*, a citizen of Venice, sailed in 1497 from Bristol on a voyage of discovery, and found out some part of North America, seemingly Labrador and the coast north of Maryland. Some think that the *Cabots* had already, in 1494, made a voyage to America, and that the first land they saw was the island of Cape Breton.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

HENRY VIII.

Henry VIII.; beheading of Empson and Dudley (1)—*Battle of the Spurs; battle of Flodden; marriages of Mary Tudor; Field of the Cloth of Gold* (2)—*Cardinal Wolsey; beheading of Buckingham; taxation; divorce of Katharine of Aragon; marriage with Anne Boleyn; fall and death of Wolsey; separation from Rome; the*

Reformation, religious and political (3)—*the King's marriages* (4)—*Thomas Cromwell; suppression of the monasteries; the Pilgrimage of Grace; Reginald Pole; the Bible; the Six Articles; beheading of Cromwell; religious affairs* (5)—*wars with Scotland and France* (6)—*beheading of the Earl of Surrey; death and will of Henry* (7)—*Defender of the Faith* (8)—*Wales and Ireland* (9)—*the navy* 10).

1. **Henry VIII., 1509—1547.**—The new King was a handsome youth of eighteen, fair, auburn-haired, and of unusual height and strength. He was a master of the national weapon, the bow, and was perfect in those knightly exercises with sword and lance, which, though they were ceasing to be of much use in real warfare, were still thought necessary accomplishments for a gentleman. His intellectual training had likewise been high; he was skilled in music, a good scholar, and able to enter into and appreciate the new learning and culture of his age. Frank in manner and good-humoured, though liable to bursts of passion, he seemed to have all the qualities that Englishmen admired in a ruler. But though he gave fair promise, *Henry* was of a fierce and tyrannical nature. Yet he had a regard for the letter of the law, even while he bent the law to his caprice; and thus, though there was little freedom under his rule, all the forms of free government remained. To satisfy the revenge of those whom they had injured, Empson and Dudley were beheaded on a frivolous charge of high treason, and thus, though bad men, they suffered unjustly for crimes which they had not committed.

2. **War with France. Scottish Invasion.**—Henry, being desirous of playing a great part in Europe, soon mixed himself up in continental wars, taking the side opposed to France. Joined by the *Emperor-elect Maximilian*, the King in 1513 routed the French at *Guinegate*, in what was jestingly called "*the Battle of the Spurs*," from the panic-stricken flight of the enemy's

cavalry. The Scots took advantage of this war to invade England, but were defeated by *Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey*, in a battle beneath the hill of *Flodden*, Sept. 9, 1513, where their King, James IV., together with the flower of their nation, were left dead on the field. The next year peace was made with the French, their King, *Louis XII.*, marrying Henry's sister *Mary*, who, being left a widow in three months' time, at once gave her hand to *Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk*. In June, 1520, Henry had a series of friendly meetings with the new King of France, *Francis I.*, between Guines and Ardres, in which such splendour was displayed that the meeting-place was called "*the Field of the Cloth of Gold.*" But nothing came of these interviews, for Henry had already been won over to the interests of the Emperor *Charles V.*, who ruled over Spain, the Two Sicilies, the Netherlands, and large Austrian dominions, besides being, as Emperor, the head of Germany. In alliance with Charles, the King, in 1522, undertook a new war against France. Peace was made in 1525, the French agreeing to pay Henry an annual pension.

3. **Breach with Rome.**—During this period the King had been guided by *Thomas Wolsey*, a royal chaplain, and son of a wealthy burgess of Ipswich. Able and ambitious, Wolsey had by his talents raised himself to the highest pitch of favour. Honours and promotion were showered upon him; he became Archbishop of York, Chancellor, a Cardinal, and the Papal Legate, in which position he was supreme over the English Church; and he even hoped to be Pope. The nobles could ill brook the rule of an ecclesiastic of no birth; but the days of their power were gone by, and the malcontents were cowed by the beheading, in 1521, of *Edward Stafford, Duke of Buckingham*, a descendant of Edward III., on charges of aiming at the throne. Wolsey also became unpopular through the heavy taxation rendered

necessary by war and the King's profuseness. In 1525, without sanction from Parliament, commissioners were sent into the counties to demand the sixth part of every man's substance. "If men should give their goods by a commission," the people cried, "then were it worse than the taxes of France, and so England should be bond and not free." The artisans and peasants of Norfolk and Suffolk almost rose in rebellion; and Henry had to withdraw his demand. At last a series of unforeseen circumstances brought about the downfall of the powerful minister. The King and his wife *Katharine of Aragon*, whom he had married in the first year of his reign, had only one child living, *Mary*, born in 1516. Anxious, according to his own story, for a male heir, the King began to think that the death of his sons in infancy showed that his marriage with his brother's widow was displeasing to Heaven. His scruples were quickened or suggested by his having pitched upon Katharine's successor, *Anne Boleyn*, a beautiful and lively maid of honour. He applied for a divorce to *Pope Clement VII.*, who, equally unwilling to offend either Henry or Katharine's nephew the Emperor Charles, could not make up his mind what to do. He so far yielded to Henry as to send over a Legate, *Cardinal Campeggio*, who, together with Wolsey, in 1529 held a court to try the cause. It had been hoped that Katharine might be persuaded or frightened into withdrawing to a nunnery; but, being resolved to maintain her right, she appealed to Rome, and the proceedings in England came to an end without any sentence being given. At last, after the matter had been dragging on for five years, and the Universities and learned men at home and abroad had been consulted in hopes of obtaining opinions favourable to the divorce, Henry, regardless of the Pope's prohibition, privately married Anne Boleyn. The newly-appointed Primate, *Thomas Cranmer*, who owed his elevation to the zeal with which

he had advocated the King's cause, then, on the 23rd of May, 1533, pronounced the marriage between Henry and Katharine to have been null and void from the beginning. The marriage with Anne Boleyn was declared lawful; and a few days afterwards she was crowned with great pomp. The forsaken wife, who steadily refused to forego her title of Queen, died three years later. More however than the fortunes of Katharine or Anne had been concerned in this affair. Henry became dissatisfied with Cardinal Wolsey, who he thought had not served him well in the matter; and Wolsey's enemies, chief among whom was Anne, were therefore able to ruin him. He was charged with having, by the exercise of his authority as Legate, transgressed the Statute of Præmunire; the Chancellorship was taken from him, he was constrained to make over to the King the archiepiscopal palace of York-Place (now *Whitehall*), and his possessions were all forfeited. In 1530, the year after his fall, he was arrested on charges of high treason, and brought towards London; but, sickening on the way, he died at Leicester Abbey, saying on his deathbed, "If I had served God as diligently as I have served the King, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs." Nor was the fall of Wolsey all. Henry, at first only in hopes of frightening the Pope, went along with the general desire for a reform of ecclesiastical abuses; and as the breach between the King and Rome widened, step by step the English Church was withdrawn from the power of the Pope. A statute in "restraint of appeals" enacted that from Easter, 1534, there should be no appeals to the Bishop or See of Rome. All payments to Rome were stopped, and the King was declared to be *Supreme Head of the Church of England.* Denial of this title was one of the many matters which were now made high treason, and men had not even liberty to be silent, for suspected persons were liable to be called upon to express their acknowledgment of

the royal supremacy. For refusing to do this, several persons suffered death, the most notable being the aged *John Fisher, Bishop of Rochester*, who in 1529 had given due offence by remonstrating against the divorce, and the learned and excellent *Sir Thomas More*, who had succeeded Wolsey as Chancellor, but had retired, not approving of the King's measures. Both Fisher and More had been sent to the Tower for refusing to swear to maintain the *Act concerning the King's succession*, which pronounced the marriage with Katharine unlawful, and that with Anne lawful and valid. They would have consented indeed to acknowledge Anne's daughter as heir to the throne, but their consciences would not permit them to swear assent to everything contained in the Act. Their further refusal to acknowledge the royal supremacy completed their ruin. Fisher walked to the block with a New Testament in his hand. Opening it at hazard, he read, "This is life eternal, to know Thee;" and he repeated these words as he was led along. More died with cheerful composure, even with a jest. As the axe was about to fall on his neck, he moved his beard aside:—"Pity that should be cut," he murmured, "that has not committed treason." By his dealings with the Church Henry became an agent in the *Reformation*, as that separation of part of Europe from the communion of the Roman See which took place in this century is called. His part in it was more political than religious; and the mass of the nation was of the same mind—opposed to the power, but not disagreeing to any great extent with the doctrines, of Rome. The particular creed of *Martin Luther*, the German leader in this movement, did not take root in England; but the Swiss and French Reformers, who went further than he did, had much influence in the next reign. There was various teaching among the Reformers, but it in general differed from that of Rome on the nature and number of the Sacraments and on the obligations and duties

of the clergy : the reverence paid to relics and images, and the use of Latin in the Church services, were disapproved of; and the study of the Scriptures was urged on every one. The men who held the Reformed doctrines came to be distinguished by the name of *Protestants*, which was first given to those German princes and cities who in 1529 protested against a decree of the Empire unfavourable to the Lutherans. From them the name was afterwards extended to all who left the communion of Rome. Those who adhered to the Pope were called *Roman Catholics*, *Romanists*, and *Papists*, and, by themselves, simply *Catholics*, because they claimed that they alone kept the Catholic faith, and that those who cast off the Pope were heretics. These names must at first be understood only as roughly marking two parties within the English Church, which had not yet formed themselves into distinct communions. As yet, it was only a few men on either side who made exertions and sacrifices for their belief. Ordinary people might have leanings one way or the other, but they thought it belonged to the King to settle religious matters, and they obeyed the laws on these subjects just as they would any other laws.

4. **The King's Marriages.**—Anne Boleyn did not survive for many months the princess whom she had ousted. In May, 1536, her marriage with the King was declared null and void, and on a charge, true or false, of unfaithfulness, she was beheaded, leaving one daughter, *Elizabeth*, born in 1533. The day after Anne's death, Henry married *Jane Seymour*, the daughter of a Wiltshire knight. She died the next year, shortly after the birth of her son *Edward*. Early in 1540 Henry took a fourth wife, *Anne*, sister of the Duke of Cleves. This match was brought about by his chief minister, *Thomas Cromwell*, who, being favourable to the Reformation, wished the King to ally himself with the Protestant princes of Germany.

But unluckily Anne was not good looking, and Henry found a pretext for having this marriage also declared null and void. Anne was well pensioned off, and spent the rest of her life in England; while the King, without delay, married *Katharine Howard*, niece of *Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk*, who stood at the head of the party hostile to Cromwell and to the Reformers. She, being found to have misconducted herself, was beheaded, February 12, 1542; and the next year the King married his sixth and last wife, *Katharine Parr*, widow of Lord Latimer, a discreet woman, who kept her place as Henry's Queen until his death.

5. **Administration of Cromwell.**—Wolsey's power passed to one who had been in his service, Thomas Cromwell, created successively *Baron Cromwell* and *Earl of Essex*. The King made him his vicegerent in ecclesiastical matters, and as during his administration all the monastic foundations were destroyed, he has been called "*the Hammer of the Monks*." This was not done all at once. First, in 1536, the smaller monasteries were dissolved by Act of Parliament, and their revenues given to the King. The North-country people, who clung to the old ways, broke out into revolt at this: the Yorkshire rebellion, led by a young barrister named *Robert Aske*, was quaintly called "*The Pilgrimage of Grace*." After the resistance had been put down and punished, the destruction of the larger religious houses soon followed, the abbots and priors being made to surrender them, as of free will, to the King, and an Act being passed in 1539 to confirm these and any future surrenders. Meanwhile, famous relics and images and shrines were destroyed, among them the rich shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, Henry proclaiming him to have been no saint, but a rebel and traitor. Of the vast wealth thus thrown into the King's hands, part went to found new bishoprics and part to fortify the coast; but much more was spent in lavish grants to the courtiers, whilst

many of the abbey churches and buildings were pulled down for the sake of their lead and stone. On his side, the Pope, *Paul III.*, issued in 1538 a Bull excommunicating and deposing Henry; and *Cardinal Reginald Pole*, a grandson of George, Duke of Clarence, did his best to stir up foreign powers as well as English malcontents for the restoration by force of arms of the old state of ecclesiastical matters. Pole himself kept out of the way abroad, but he had friends and kinsfolk in England, and several persons suffered death on charges of treasonable correspondence with him. Chief among these were *Henry Courtenay, Marquess of Exeter*, son of a daughter of Edward IV., and suspected of plotting an insurrection in the West; Pole's elder brother, *Lord Montagu*, and, at a later time, his aged mother, *Margaret, Countess of Salisbury*, the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets. The descent of the Poles and Courtenays marked them out as leaders of the old Yorkist party, which had formed hopes of setting Exeter on the throne. It must not be thought however that the Reformed doctrines were triumphant. Under the influence indeed of Cromwell and Cranmer, the King caused Articles of Religion, approaching somewhat to the Lutheran views, to be set forth; translations of the Scriptures, such as had hitherto been forbidden, were, to the great joy of the Reformers, not only tolerated, but published with the royal licence; an edition of the Bible in English was prepared and printed under the avowed patronage of Cromwell, and an order was issued that a copy of this version should be placed in every church for all men to read. But in 1539 the party opposed to the Reformers, of which the leaders were the *Duke of Norfolk* and *Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester*, obtained the passing of the Act of the "Six Articles," remembered by the Protestants under the name of "the whip with six strings," which restored many of the old doctrines, and forbade the marriage of priests.

Cromwell's favour was already waning, and his downfall was hastened by Henry's dissatisfaction with Anne of Cleves. He was beheaded July 28, 1540, an Act of Parliament attainting him of treason and heresy having been passed without his being heard in his defence. Two days later, an example was made of offenders of both parties—six clergymen were put to death at Smithfield, three as traitors, for affirming that the marriage with Katharine had been lawful; three as heretics, for preaching Luther's doctrines. After the fall of Cromwell, Gardiner and his party came more into power, though they were never able to overthrow Archbishop Cranmer, who, as far as he durst, favoured the Reformers. The new doctrines were spreading fast, and "in every alehouse and tavern," as Henry complained, men wrangled over religious questions. An Act was passed in 1543 forbidding the reading of the Bible by "the lower sort" of people—artificers, labourers, and the like; and many of the translations and religious works of the Reformers were suppressed; although an English Litany, translated perhaps by the King, and other prayers in the vulgar tongue, were ordered to be used. Of the Protestants put to death in this reign, one of the most notable was *Anne Ascue* (daughter of Sir William Ascue), who was burned in Smithfield, in July, 1546.

6. **Wars with Scotland and France.**—In 1542 a war broke out with Scotland, whose King, *James V.*, being on the side of Rome, was not disposed towards alliance with his uncle Henry of England. A Scottish army crossed the Border, but whether from disaffection or from sudden panic, it fled before a few hundreds of Englishmen at *Solway Moss*. This disgrace broke the heart of James, who died not long afterwards, leaving as his successor an infant daughter, *Mary Stuart*. Henry negotiated a marriage between the young Queen and his son *Edward;* but the treaty to that effect was soon broken off by the Scots, and

Henry's attempts to enforce its fulfilment by sending his army to ravage and burn their country only set them the more against the proposed match. Edinburgh itself was sacked and fired by the English under *Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford*, brother of Queen Jane Seymour. Irritated by French intrigues in Scotland, Henry, in alliance with Charles V., also entered upon war with France, and passing over to that country in 1544, he took *Boulogne*, which it was afterwards agreed should be given back at the end of eight years, upon payment of a sum of money, besides the pension due by the treaty of 1525. The Scots were included in this peace.

7. **Death of Henry.**—Henry, who in his later years had become unwieldy and infirm, and suffered great pain, died Jan. 28, 1547. Not long before, the Duke of Norfolk and his son *Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey*, who was famous for his poetical talent, had been sent to the Tower under charges of treason, the suspicion being that they meant to seize on the Regency after Henry's death. Surrey was beheaded on the 19th Jan., and it is said that the day for Norfolk's execution was fixed ; but as on that very morning the King died, the sentence was not carried out, and the Duke remained in prison. It is supposed that Surrey owed his death to the Seymours, who had risen into high favour with the King, and between whom and the Howards there was bitter jealousy. The Howards belonged to the old nobility, and leaned towards the old faith ; the Seymours were "new men," and well-disposed to the new doctrines. The Earl of Hertford was among the sixteen "executors" of King Henry's will, to whom the government during the minority of his son was entrusted ; for Parliament had given Henry special powers with regard to the succession to his kingdom. In case Edward died childless, the Crown was settled by Act of Parliament on the King's daughters, first on Mary and her heirs, then on Elizabeth and her heirs.

After them, Henry bequeathed it to the descendants of his younger sister Mary.

8. **Defender of the Faith.**—Henry was the first of our Kings who bore the title of "*Defender of the Faith.*" This he obtained in 1521 from the Pope, *Leo X.*, in return for his having written against Luther a Latin treatise on the *Seven Sacraments;* and he and his successors still kept it after they had ceased, in papal eyes at least, to deserve it.

9. **Wales and Ireland.**—In 1536 *Wales* was incorporated with England, and the English laws and liberties were granted to its inhabitants. *Ireland*, where England had almost lost its authority, such as it was, was brought under a somewhat stronger rule; and in 1542 it was raised to the dignity of a *kingdom*, having been hitherto styled only a *lordship*.

10. **The Navy.**—Henry VIII. followed the example of his father in paying great attention to the navy. He constituted the Admiralty and Navy Office, and incorporated the *Trinity House*, a guild for the promotion of commerce and navigation, which was empowered to make laws for the shipping; he also established dockyards at Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth.

CHAPTER XXIX.

EDWARD VI.

Edward VI; rule of the Protector Somerset (1)—*beheading of Seymour; fall and beheading of Somerset* (2)—*the Duke of Northumberland; death of the King; alteration of the succession* (3)—*the Reformation* (4).

1. **Edward VI., 1547-1553.**—The directions of Henry's will were at once infringed, the *Earl of Hertford* prevailing on his fellow-executors to make him *Protector* and governor of the young King his nephew,

and thus to place him at the head of the State, although under the will they had equal powers. In accordance, it was said, with the late King's intentions, he was also created *Duke of Somerset*. Ambitious and greedy of riches, the Protector yet really sought the welfare of his country, and won the love of the common people, for whom he had kindly feelings. He was a good soldier, and in the first year of his rule he made a savage attack upon Scotland, in hopes of enforcing the marriage treaty; his victory at *Pinkie*, near Musselburgh (September 10, 1547), strengthened his influence at home, although he did not bring back the young Queen, who in the course of the next year was sent into France as the betrothed of the Dauphin, afterwards King *Francis II.* In religious matters Somerset gave his support to the advanced Reformers, who had hitherto been kept down; and when Parliament met, the "Six Articles" and the statutes against the Lollards were repealed, as well as Henry's harsh enactments concerning treason. All the remaining *chantries* (where masses were said for the souls of particular persons) and colleges, saving only the cathedral chapters, the colleges in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the colleges of Winchester and Eton, were suppressed, and their property made over to the Crown. The King, who was only ten years old when he came to the throne, being brought up by men of strong Protestant views, naturally held their opinions; and in piety and religious zeal he was beyond his years. *Hugh Latimer*, the most outspoken of the Reformed preachers, the most fearless rebuker of iniquity in high places, had a pulpit erected for him in the King's garden, where young Edward would sit and listen to sermons an hour long. The boy received an excellent education, and being intelligent, quick, and thoughtful, he made great progress. Even before he was eight years old he had written Latin letters to his father.

2. **Fall of Somerset.**—The first enemy Somerset had to deal with was his own brother, *Thomas, Lord Seymour of Sudeley, High Admiral of England*, an ambitious and unprincipled man, who had married the widowed Queen Katharine Parr. Aiming at supplanting the Protector, he was himself destroyed by a bill of attainder, without being heard in his own defence, and was beheaded March 20, 1549. That Seymour had been plotting to upset the government by force is likely enough; but, ruthless as the age was, there were yet many who thought it a horrible thing for one brother to send another to the block. Somerset's rule did not last much longer, his government proving a failure both at home and abroad. His predecessors in authority had left him a difficult task. To meet the expenses of the government the coinage had been depreciated. Prices had in consequence risen; while, the demand for labour having fallen off, wages had not risen in proportion. Large sheep-farms had been found to pay better than tillage-farms; and though in the long run it was best that the land should be employed to the most profit, at the time the change caused great distress. Tenants and labourers were turned away, villages were pulled down —where once many had found homes and work, there was "now but a shepherd and his dog." The new owners—courtier nobles, or wealthy traders and graziers —were stricter landlords than the old monks and nobles; and wherever they could, they enclosed the extensive waste and common lands on which the poor had partly found their livelihood. Unemployed labourers and dispossessed squatters turned beggars or thieves, and it was in vain that law after law was passed against vagrants. The peasantry had thus many grievances, which in some parts they charged upon the change of religion. There were soon disturbances in many quarters. The common people of the West rose in arms to demand the restoration

of the mass, which had given place to the English Prayer-book; the Norfolk men, headed by *Robert Ket*, a tanner by trade, but lord of three manors, broke out into insurrection against the landowners who were enclosing commons and turning arable land into pasture. The Norfolk rebellion was quelled, not without a sharp struggle, by *John Dudley, Earl of Warwick*, at the head of a force partly made up of German mercenaries. With these Norfolk insurgents the Protector had at first somewhat sympathised, and it was charged against him that by having appointed commissioners to remove illegal enclosures, he had encouraged the peasantry to revolt. Moreover he was harsh to the young King, and haughty to the nobles. "Of late," one of his friends wrote to him plainly, "your Grace is grown into great choleric fashions, whensoever you are contraried in that which you have conceived in your head." His administration was wasteful; he had made a vast fortune out of the Church property, and had given offence by building for himself a splendid palace (on the site of which stands the present *Somerset House*), pulling down churches and the cloister of St. Paul's to supply materials or to make room. The Earl of Warwick and many other lords of the Council joining together to get rid of him, he was in 1549 deposed from the Protectorate, and heavily fined. One of the faults alleged against him was having left in a defenceless state Boulogne, which was now threatened by the French; and, the country being unprepared to carry on a war for it, his successors in the government were obliged to give it back, though they received in compensation only a fifth of the sum promised to Henry VIII., and virtually surrendered the annual pension. But to the last Somerset was beloved, especially as the administration of his successors proved worse than his had been; and when, in 1552, he was beheaded on a charge of conspiring against his rival, Warwick, now *Duke of*

Northumberland, and two others of the Council; great was the sorrow for him.

3. **The Duke of Northumberland.**—The Duke of Northumberland, who took the management of affairs after Somerset's fall, was the son of that Dudley who had been the evil agent of Henry VII. He had shown a vigour in putting down the Norfolk rebellion, which, in the eyes of all who feared a general peasant insurrection, contrasted favourably with the wavering policy of Somerset. As for religion, he appears in reality to have had none, but it suited him to set up for a thorough-going Protestant, and he was in consequence the idol of some of the more eager members of that party, although his government was tyrannical, and the people detested him. In 1553 the young King, who took much interest in public affairs, and whose coming of age was looked forward to with great hopes, fell dangerously ill. Northumberland foresaw that if Katharine of Aragon's daughter, the *Lady Mary*, who altogether disapproved of the doings of her brother's ministers in religious matters, came to the throne, his power would be at an end. He therefore persuaded the dying boy to alter the succession—a thing which the King had no right to do without authority from Parliament—by shutting out his sisters, and settling the crown on his cousin *Lady Jane Grey*, daughter of Henry Grey, Duke of Suffolk, and granddaughter of Charles Brandon and Mary, daughter of Henry VII. Edward was led to this by the fear that the Reformed faith would suffer if his sister Mary reigned; Northumberland's motive was the hope of setting on the throne his fourth son, *Lord Guilford Dudley*, whom he had just married to Lady Jane. With all his father's wilfulness, the youthful King overbore the legal objections of the judges; and by his entreaties he won the consent of Archbishop Cranmer. Shortly after, Edward died at Greenwich, July 6, his last prayer being that England might be defended from

"papistry." The common belief was that Northumberland had hastened his end by poison, but of this there is no sufficient proof.

4. **The Reformation.**—The Protestant Reformation made rapid progress in London and in the towns, especially in those on the sea-coast; but the country districts were slower in accepting it, and the government pushed it on both further and faster than suited the mass of the nation. Somerset early issued injunctions to put away the pictures and images in the churches; and the overthrow of crucifixes, the whitewashing of walls once adorned with paintings, and the destruction of stained glass, brought the change before the eyes of the simplest and most ignorant. *Gardiner*, who gave offence by opposing Somerset's religious measures, *Edmund Bonner*, *Bishop of London*, and other bishops who would not go all lengths with the party in power, were sent to prison; and Northumberland filled their sees with Protestants, *Nicholas Ridley*, one of the ablest of the Reforming clergy, succeeding Bonner in London. Out of the college and chantry property King Edward endowed grammar-schools at *Shrewsbury*, *Birmingham*, *Macclesfield*, and other places; but great part of the wealth gained by stripping the churches of their plate, and suppressing and diminishing the possessions of bishoprics, went into the hands of the men in power and their friends, to whom the Reformation was dear chiefly for the sake of the plunder. Bishop Ridley, preaching before Edward at Whitehall, took occasion to speak of the distressed condition of the London poor; upon which the young King, sending for the Bishop, asked his advice as to what should be done. Ridley suggested consulting the corporation of the City, whose conduct in founding hospitals and schools already formed an honourable contrast to that of the government. The result was that the old house of the Grey Friars was chartered by the King as *Christ's*

Hospital (commonly called the *Bluecoat School*); the Hospitals of *St. Bartholomew* and *St. Thomas* were re-founded and re-endowed; and the King made over the royal house of *Bridewell* for a workhouse. The Prayer-book of the Church of England was compiled in this reign by Archbishop Cranmer, who took the old Latin services for his groundwork. The first complete Prayer-book was set forth in 1549, but many changes were made in 1552 under the influence of the foreign Reformers; and Acts for the "Uniformity of Service" forbade the use of any other religious rites. Cranmer also put forth forty-two *Articles of Religion*, which at a later time were cut down to thirty-nine, and underwent some other changes. The Lady Mary firmly refused to have the new service used in her house, although, after the fall of Somerset, attempts were made to constrain her to conform. "Rather than she will agree to use any other service than was used at the death of the late King her father," was the report brought back by those who were sent to overcome her opposition, "she would lay her head on a block and suffer death." Ridley tried his powers of argument in vain—"I cannot tell what you call God's word," said Mary. "That is not God's word now which was God's word in my father's time." Tolerance was not in those days looked upon as a virtue, even by Reformers. A friend of Anne Ascue, *Joan Bocher* by name, who held opinions condemned by both of the two great religious parties, was in 1550 burned at the stake.

CHAPTER XXX.

MARY.

Mary; Lady Jane Grey (1)—*the Spanish marriage; Wyatt's insurrection; beheading of Lady Jane; reconciliation with Rome* (2)—*persecution of the Protestants* (3)—*loss of Calais; death of Mary* (4).

1. **Mary, 1553-1558. Lady Jane Grey.**—It had been intended to keep Edward's death a secret until the Ladies *Mary* and *Elizabeth* had been secured; but Mary had friends who gave her warning, and she at once made her escape into Norfolk. Her innocent rival, *Jane Grey*, was but sixteen, beautiful, accomplished, learned, and firm in the Reformed faith. Jane had known nothing of her father-in-law's ambitious schemes, and when he and four other lords came to her at Sion House, and knelt before her as their Queen, she received their information with amazement and dismay. On the 10th July she was proclaimed; but her reign only lasted nine days. The nation was unanimous in regarding Mary as the rightful heir, and thousands gathered round her. No voice was raised to cheer the Duke as he rode out of the city at the head of his troops to advance against Mary's forces. "The people press to see us," he gloomily observed, "but not one sayeth God speed us." Mary was proclaimed in London amid general rejoicing on the 19th July, after which, Northumberland, losing heart on finding his men fall away, himself proclaimed her in Cambridge, throwing his cap into the air as a signal for applause, while tears of mortification were seen running down his cheeks. Not a blow being struck for Jane, Mary entered London in triumph at the head of her friends. Her first act was to set free

the Duke of Norfolk, Bishop Gardiner, and other state prisoners. The Duke of Northumberland, whose ambition had thus been baffled, was tried and beheaded, and, to the dismay of the Reformers, died declaring that he had returned to the ancient faith. *Simon Renard*, the ambassador of Charles V., whom Mary chiefly consulted, urged that Jane and her husband should also die, but the Queen as yet was pitiful, and they were only kept prisoners in the Tower.

2. **The Spanish Marriage.**—Unfortunately for her popularity, Mary was sincerely devoted to the Church of Rome. The nation indeed, disgusted with the Reforming statesmen of the last reign, was by no means Protestant at heart, except in London and the large towns. The deprived bishops were restored, Gardiner was made Chancellor, the foreign preachers were ordered out of the country, Cranmer and Latimer were sent to the Tower, and the mass was said as of old. When Parliament met, all laws concerning religion passed in the last reign were repealed, and it was enacted that divine service was to be performed as in the last year of Henry VIII. But Mary wanted more than this; and whereas her people wished her to marry some English nobleman, *Edward Courtenay*, *Earl of Devon*, a great-grandson of Edward IV., being especially thought of, she had made up her mind to take the Emperor's son, *Philip of Spain*, for her husband. Every one agreed in disapproving of her choice. The heir of a foreign kingdom would have other interests than those of England to look to; and men feared lest the country should become a province of Spain. "The Spaniards," murmured the people, "were coming into the realm with harness and hand-guns. This realm should be brought to bondage by them as it was never afore." To hinder the marriage, *Sir Thomas Wyatt* raised a formidable insurrection among the Kentishmen, who marched upon

London with the intention of seizing upon the Queen. Mary rallied the wavering Londoners to her cause—unless her marriage, she said, was approved by Lords and Commons in Parliament, she would never marry. "Wherefore stand fast against these rebels, your enemies and mine; fear them not, for I assure you I fear them nothing at all." The next morning more than 20,000 men had enrolled themselves to protect the city. Wyatt's army fell off as he advanced; and though he made his way into London, no one joined him, and at Temple Bar he gave himself up. The first to suffer for this rebellion were two captives who had had no part in it. Mary, being persuaded that her former lenity had encouraged rebellion, ordered the execution of Lady Jane and her young husband Guilford Dudley, who were accordingly beheaded Feb. 12, 1554. Jane, her faith unshaken by the priest whom the Queen sent to convert her, died with gentle firmness. With more justice, Wyatt, as well as the Duke of Suffolk, who had been concerned in a similar attempt at insurrection, were put to death, and many other rebels shared their fate. The real design of the conspirators, it was believed, had been to raise to the throne the Lady Elizabeth with Courtenay as her husband; both therefore were sent to the Tower. Renard, truly considering Elizabeth to be a dangerous rival, urged that she should be put to death; but as there was no evidence against her, she was only placed for a time in ward at Woodstock. Courtenay was afterwards ordered abroad, and died in Italy. Philip of Spain came over in July, and the marriage took place. Nature and education had made him stiff and ungracious; but he tried hard to be conciliatory, requesting his attendants, on his arrival, to conform to the manners of the country, and setting the example by drinking off a tankard of ale. He was called King of England so long as the Queen lived; but, to the great vexation of himself and his wife,

Parliament would not consent that he should be crowned, or that he should succeed Mary if she died childless. The next step after the marriage was to bring about a reconciliation with Rome. On the 30th November, 1554, the Lords and Commons met at Whitehall, went on their knees, and were absolved, together with the whole realm, from heresy and schism, by Cardinal Reginald Pole, who had come over as the Pope's Legate. Yet the triumph was not so complete as it seemed. The Lollard statutes indeed were revived, the statutes against the supremacy of the See of Rome were swept away; but the Pope had to consent that the holders of lands and goods taken from the Church should remain in possession. Mary, more zealous than her subjects, restored the Church revenues which were in the hands of the Crown, and re-established some of the old religious houses.

3. **The Persecution.**—The statutes against heretics were not revived for nothing. The fire was first kindled for *John Rogers*, a canon of St. Paul's, who had worked upon the translation of the Bible; and, by the end of the reign, two hundred persons or more, men and women, had died at the stake. In justice, it must be said that most men then believed it right to punish erroneous opinions—a belief which the Roman Catholics had the opportunity of fully carrying out. The people, sickened by the wholesale slaughter, and touched by the courage of the sufferers, were more won to the Protestant cause by these spectacles than by any arguments. It had been thought by many that the men of the new doctrines had no sincere belief; but proving staunch on trial, they called forth a burst of admiration; while Mary has come down to posterity with the epithet of "bloody" fixed upon her. The same fearful word cleaves to Bishop Bonner, to whose lot it fell to try and condemn a large number of the victims—a task for which he seems in truth to have had no

great liking. *John Hooper*, late Bishop of Gloucester and Worcester, was burned in his episcopal city of Gloucester. On the same day was burned *Rowland Taylor*, the parish priest of Hadleigh, whose tender parting with his wife and daughters drew tears from the sheriff and the men who guarded him. Ridley, late Bishop of London, who had preached in defence of the Lady Jane's claim to the crown, and the aged Latimer, bound to one stake, were burned together at Oxford, Oct. 16, 1555. "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley," said Latimer, as the first lighted faggot was laid at his companion's feet, "and play the man. We shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out." Cranmer, of less firm mould than the others, recanted; but this humiliation did not save his life. Being brought to the stake, he abjured his recantation, and, as an evidence of repentance, thrust the hand that had written it first into the flame, crying, "This hand hath offended." These were leading men, but among the laity the persecution did not strike high, labourers, artisans, tradesmen, private gentlemen at the most, being the usual victims.

4. **Loss of Calais.**—The marriage of Philip and Mary was unhappy. They were childless, and though Mary doted on her husband, he did not care for her; she was a small, haggard, sickly woman, eleven years older than himself; and he had married her only to suit his father's policy. England, where he was regarded with suspicion and hatred, offered him no attractions; and when he left it to become, by the abdication of his father, sovereign of the Netherlands and King of Spain, he had little inducement to return. After this he only came over once for a few months to urge the Queen to join him in war against France; she consented, and the result was disastrous. The government had neglected to repair the defences of Calais, or to keep a sufficient garrison in it; and in

January 1558 it was taken by the French. It was no real loss; but it was a terrible blow to English pride, and the Queen is reported to have said, "When I die, Calais will be found written on my heart." The unfortunate Mary, neglected by her husband, broken down in health, and having lost the love of her people, died November 17, 1558. Cardinal Pole, who had succeeded Cranmer in the archbishopric of Canterbury, survived the Queen only twenty-two hours. From that time the power of Rome in England was at an end.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ELIZABETH.

Elizabeth (1)—*the Reformed Church; Roman Catholics and Puritans; Ireland* (2)—*flight of the Queen of Scots to England; her captivity and execution* (3)—*the struggle with Spain; Sir Philip Sidney; naval adventurers; Walter Ralegh; Francis Drake; defeat of the Armada* (4)—*the Earl of Essex; rebellion of Tyrone* (5)—*monopolies* (6)—*death of Elizabeth* (7)—*East India Company* (8).

1. **Elizabeth, 1558-1603.**—*Elizabeth* was welcomed by all when, in her twenty-sixth year, she succeeded to the crown. She had conformed first to the religion of Edward VI., and then, though unwillingly, to that of Mary, and her own opinions were vague; but it soon appeared that she intended to support a moderate Reformation, although Philip of Spain, not long after her accession, offered her his hand on condition that she would profess and uphold his creed. After some delay she refused him, as in the end she did every one of her suitors, although she gave hopes to many, and

was earnestly pressed by Parliament to marry. She loved her country, although she had inherited her father's imperious and despotic nature; her chief faults as a ruler were irresolution and want of openness; her private weaknesses—personal vanity and a love of flattery—might afford food for the ridicule of her enemies, but they did not prevent her from being a great sovereign. She had the art of choosing sagacious advisers, and to the wise counsels of her chief minister, *William Cecil*, afterwards *Baron Burghley* and Lord High Treasurer, much of the success of her reign is to be attributed. *Sir Francis Walsingham*, and *Robert Cecil*, second son of Lord Burghley, and afterwards created *Earl of Salisbury*, are also notable among her advisers. She had also favourites, often clever men, but owing their influence to their courtierlike qualities, their accomplishments, their good mien, and their professed devotion to her. Sometimes these men had considerable power, but none ever gained complete mastery over her. Foremost among them was the handsome, polished, but worthless *Lord Robert Dudley*, younger son of the late Duke of Northumberland, and created *Earl of Leicester*. He was unpopular, and evil tales were told of him; but he won the Queen's liking, though he failed to obtain her hand. Elizabeth loved pomp and show, and to be surrounded by a gallant train of nobles and gentlemen vying for her favour. It was the fashion to address extravagant compliments to sovereigns and to ladies; and thus the Queen received a double portion of flattery. But her fearless spirit, her royal bearing, her shrewd and ready wit, won genuine admiration from the great mass of her subjects.

2. **Religious Affairs.**—In religion Elizabeth's plan was to hold a middle course, and so to shape the Church that it should content moderate men of both parties. But willing or unwilling, all must accept her system; for to her, as to most statesmen, it seemed

necessary that the nation should be, outwardly at least, united in religion. On this plan, the Reformed Church of England was now established, and the supremacy of the Crown was restored by Act of Parliament, though Elizabeth would not take the title of Head of the Church. Almost all Mary's bishops were deprived for refusing to take the *oath of supremacy*, which declared the Queen to be *supreme governor* "as well in all spiritual and ecclesiastical things or causes as temporal;" and Bonner was imprisoned for the rest of his days. Towards the end of 1559 *Matthew Parker*, a learned and prudent man, was consecrated Archbishop of Canterbury. The second Prayer-book of Edward, with some alterations intended to suit those who leaned to the old views, was restored; and a new *Act of Uniformity* forbade the use by a minister of any other services, and imposed a fine on those who absented themselves from church. This bore heavily on the Roman Catholics, of whom many withdrew beyond sea, and became a source of danger to Elizabeth; while those who remained at home were harassed and persecuted under laws of increasing severity. Elizabeth's determination to make all her subjects conform to the rites she established was resisted, not only by the Roman Catholics, but by the extreme Protestants or "*Puritans*," as they came to be nicknamed, from their desiring a simpler and *purer* form of worship—that is to say, one which should have less in common with that of Rome. These men had to a great extent learned their opinions from the followers of the French reformer *John Calvin*, under whose influence Geneva had become a model Puritan State. Even under Edward the Reformation had not gone far enough for them, still less under the Queen, who retained ceremonies and practices which to their minds savoured of superstition. Thus, for example, they objected vehemently to the white surplice which all

ministers were ordered to wear when saying public prayers. After a time uniformity in the Church services was strictly enforced, thirty-seven London clergymen at once being suspended from their ministry for refusing compliance. The non-conformist clergy and their friends then took to holding religious meetings of their own, which were put down as offences against the law. The great body of the Puritans however did not wish to leave the Church, although they strove to mould it to their own views, and even to alter its government; for many of them were beginning to disapprove of *episcopacy*, that is, government by bishops. There sprang up also in the latter part of the reign a sect afterwards famous under the name of *Independents*, which avowedly separated from the established Church. The chief instrument employed to force the Puritans into conformity was the *High Commission Court*, appointed by Elizabeth under the powers of the Act of Supremacy, to inquire into and punish by spiritual censure, deprivation, fine, and imprisonment, heresies, schisms, absence from church, and such like offences. Troublesome as the Puritans were to Elizabeth, they were staunch in their loyalty; for it was no time for any Protestant to be disloyal, when the old faith and the reformed were struggling for life or death throughout Europe, and Philip, the mightiest prince of the age, was on the side of Rome. Elizabeth became, more by force of circumstances than by her own wish, the hope of the Reformed communions, and the Puritans forgave her their own wrongs in consideration of the help she doled out to their Protestant brethren in France, Scotland, and the Netherlands. One incident shows what the Puritan mettle was. In 1579 Elizabeth professed to to be about to marry *Francis*, the young *Duke of Anjou*, brother to the French King. This proposed French marriage was as unpopular as her sister's Spanish marriage had been. A Puritan lawyer, John

Stubbs, wrote a pamphlet against it, so outspoken that Elizabeth had the author and the bookseller tried as stirrers-up of sedition, and punished by having their right hands struck off. When his sentence was executed, Stubbs, with unalterable loyalty, waved his hat with his remaining hand and cried, "God save the Queen!" In *Ireland* the Church was reformed as in England, but there in its new shape it took no root, even the settlers of the *Pale*, the English district, being little inclined towards it, and scarcely any trouble being bestowed upon winning them over otherwise than by force of law.

3. **Mary Stuart.**—The person generally looked upon as Elizabeth's heir was *Mary Stuart*, Queen of Scots and widow of Francis II., King of France. Though left out of Henry the Eighth's will (which however some believed not to have been signed with the King's own hand, and therefore to be worthless), she was the nearest heir, being the granddaughter of his elder sister Margaret. Some of the Roman Catholics regarded her as rightful Queen of England already, and she, when in France, had taken that title. The Scots were mainly Protestants of Calvin's school; but Mary was herself a Roman Catholic, and as the hopes of the English Roman Catholics were fixed upon her, she was a formidable rival to Elizabeth. She was one of the most fascinating of women, and in cleverness and craft she matched Elizabeth, but was inferior to her in caution and self-control. By her folly, if by nothing worse, she laid herself open to accusations of great crimes, on account of which the Scottish lords forced her to resign her crown to her infant son *James VI.*, in the murder of whose father, *Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley*, she was believed to have been an accomplice. They placed her in captivity, from which she escaped, and flying to England, threw herself on Elizabeth's protection, May 16, 1568. But, contrary to her

expectation, the English government detained her as a state prisoner, in which position she became as dangerous to Elizabeth as Elizabeth had once been to her own sister. Round the beautiful captive gathered a succession of conspiracies against Elizabeth, formed by Roman Catholics who looked to Spain for help. *Thomas Percy* and *Charles Neville, Earls of Northumberland* and *Westmoreland*, raised a Roman Catholic rebellion in the North, where men still clung to the old faith. It was quickly crushed, and punished with extreme severity. Plans were formed for marrying Mary to the chief nobleman in England, the *Duke of Norfolk* (son of the poet Surrey), and restoring the Roman Catholic religion by the help of a Spanish army. The plot being discovered, the Duke was beheaded, June 2, 1572. *Pope Pius V.* in 1570 published a bull absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance, which in the end did more harm to the Pope's friends than to the Queen. All hope of reconciliation between the English government and Rome having died out, the Roman Catholics generally ceased to attend the Reformed services, and became distinctly marked off as a separate religious body. *Seminary priests* (that is, priests from colleges established abroad for English Roman Catholics) and *Jesuits* poured into the kingdom, not only to keep up the rites of their Church, but, as was generally believed, to stir up their disciples against the Queen. The Jesuits were the members of the "*Company of Jesus*," a new religious order devoted to the service of the Pope; and their zeal and energy everywhere inspired the members of their Church with fresh life. Many of these missionaries were put to the death of traitors. Often before being brought to trial, they were tortured for the purpose of wringing information from them; for though torture to extort evidence was never recognized by law, it had nevertheless begun to be employed in the fifteenth century, and was in frequent use under the Tudors, the Privy

Council claiming a right to inflict it when it was thought that information of importance to the government might be thereby obtained. In the seventeenth century the judges declared torture to be altogether illegal. There were constant plots and rumours of plots to kill Elizabeth; and the Puritans, who had a majority in the House of Commons, from which Roman Catholics were kept out by the oath of supremacy exacted from the members, began to call for the death of Mary. After she had been about nineteen years a captive, a plot, with which the watchful Secretary of State, Walsingham, became, by means of spies and intercepted letters, early acquainted, was formed by *Anthony Babington* and many other young Roman Catholics against Elizabeth's life. A statute passed in 1585 had specially provided against plots made by or on behalf of any person claiming the crown, and had prescribed a mode of trial before a commission of peers, privy councillors, and judges. Mary was now charged with being accessory to Babington's plot, and was accordingly put on her trial before such a commission. She was found guilty, and was beheaded Feb. 8, 1587, in the hall of Fotheringhay Castle. In the preceding year she had sent word to Philip that she had bequeathed her prospective rights upon England to him, having set aside her son as being a Protestant.

4. **The Struggle with Spain.**—In her dealings with foreign powers, Elizabeth was vacillating and faithless; but capricious as her conduct often seemed, she was constant in her purpose of maintaining her independence and of avoiding open war. Philip had at first striven to keep on good terms with her, but the Queen being gradually drawn on by her more Protestant ministers and subjects, Spain and England entered upon a course of bickering, and underhand acts of hostility: Elizabeth from time to time aiding Philip's revolted subjects, the Protestants of the Netherlands;

Philip encouraging the malcontents both in England and Ireland, and planning an invasion which was constantly deferred. At last, in 1585, the Queen, having openly allied herself with the people of the Netherlands, who had formed themselves into the commonwealth of the *United Provinces*, sent out to their aid an expedition, commanded by the Earl of Leicester. This expedition did not effect anything; an engagement before Zutphen is memorable, because it cost the life of *Sir Philip Sidney*, who for his talents and his virtues was the darling of the nation. It is told of him that having left the field with what proved a mortal wound, he asked for some drink. But as he lifted the bottle to his lips, he saw a dying soldier, who was being carried by, glance wistfully at it. Sidney gave it to him untasted, saying, "Thy necessity is yet greater than mine." The strife with Spain was in great measure fomented and kept up by a set of men much of the stamp of the old Vikings, a passion for maritime adventure having taken possession of England. *Martin Frobisher* and *John Davis* have left their names to the Straits which they discovered while seeking for the North-West passage—that is, a passage to Asia round the northern coast of America. *John Hawkins*, of Plymouth, was one of the first Englishmen who engaged in the negro-slave trade, in which so little shame was seen that the Queen granted him a Moor as his crest in memory of it, and herself shared in the profits. Philip however was aggrieved thereby, for Hawkins sold his slaves to the Spanish-American colonies, where the importation of negroes was illegal. *Sir Walter Ralegh*, of Devonshire, one of Elizabeth's favourites, attempted, though without permanent success, to plant on the coasts of North America a colony which Elizabeth named *Virginia*, in honour of herself, the "Virgin Queen;" and by his colonists the practice of smoking tobacco was introduced into England. To Ralegh, according to the common tale,

belongs the credit of having first brought into Ireland the potato, a native production of America. Most famous of all is *Francis Drake*, also a Devonshire man by birth, who started in life as an apprentice in a Channel coaster. Drake was the first man who sailed in one voyage round the world. In an earlier expedition he had descried from the Isthmus of Panama the Pacific Ocean, as yet unknown to the English, and falling on his knees, had prayed for "life and leave once to sail an English ship in those seas." Though he started on his great voyage with five small vessels, he came home with only one, but that one was heavy laden with gold and jewels, the plunder of Spanish towns and ships. The Queen herself, regardless of the just complaints of Spain, partook of a banquet on board Drake's ship, and there knighted the bold adventurer. Drake and most of his fellows were a strange mixture of explorer, pirate, and knight-errant; Spain was the foe of their religion, and the cruelties often inflicted upon English Protestants on Spanish soil served as some excuse for the lawless doings of the rovers. To spoil and burn the Spanish towns in the New World, to waylay and capture the gold and silver laden ships that sailed to Spain, were at once profitable and, in their eyes, virtuous acts. Even after the Queen had sent troops into the Netherlands, she still hung back from engaging vigorously in war; but the adventurers whose exploits she sanctioned or winked at had no such hesitation. Drake, in retaliation for a recent seizure by the Spaniards of English ships and sailors, plundered Vigo, and passing on to the West Indies, stormed and put to ransom the towns of San Domingo and Cartagena. In 1587, when Philip was about to invade England, Drake, with six of the Queen's ships and twenty-four privateers, entered the harbours of Cadiz and Coruña, and destroyed the ships and great part of the stores there; in his

own phrase, he "singed the Spanish King's beard." The threatened invasion, though delayed by Drake, was actually attempted the next year. A mighty naval force, known by its Spanish name of *Armada* —that is, Fleet—was collected at Lisbon, and the flower of Spain joined in the enterprise, which, being undertaken at the instance of the Pope, *Sixtus V.*, was looked on as a holy war. Philip's general, *Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma*, had another fine army ready in the neighbourhood of Nieuport and Dunkirk, for whose protection on its passage to England the Armada, commanded by the *Duke of Medina Sidonia*, was to make its way through the Channel to the North Foreland. *Charles, Lord Howard of Effingham*, commanded the English fleet, and with him were Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, and others like them. The Queen, who had believed to the last in the possibility of peace, had been slow and sparing in her preparations. There were only thirty-four ships of the royal navy; the rest were furnished by the seaport towns, or by noblemen, gentlemen, and merchants. London is said to have supplied double the number of ships and men requested of it. The forces of the country were rapidly mustered, an army of 16,000 men, under the command of Leicester, being assembled at Tilbury to cover London; and the mass of the English Roman Catholics came forward as zealously as anybody else, for though they might have invited foreign aid for Mary of Scotland's sake, they were not minded deliberately to make their country over to Philip. But everything depended on the fleet; for full of spirit as the land forces were, they were untried men, ill-fitted to cope with the veteran troops of Spain. On the 19th July, Howard, who was at Plymouth, learned that the Armada—about a hundred and fifty sail—was off the Cornish coast; and coming out with about sixty or seventy ships, he hung upon the enemy's rear. Fresh vessels

joined him daily until he mustered a hundred and forty. His plan was, not to come to close quarters with the huge fleet, which advanced up the Channel in the form of a half-moon, but to follow and harass it with his small vessels, which, sailing twice as fast as the Spaniards, could advance and retreat as they chose. Medina Sidonia, fighting as he sailed along, anchored on the 27th in Calais roads. To drive him out, at midnight on the 28th eight ships were fired, and sent drifting with wind and tide among the Spaniards, who, seized with a panic, cut their cables, and ran out to sea in disorder. At daybreak the scattered fleet was attacked by Howard, Drake, and Lord Henry Seymour, and a hot fight took place off Gravelines. Though the Spaniards fought gallantly, in seamanship and gun-practice they were inferior to their adversaries, and their floating castles were no match for the active little English vessels. Had not the Queen's ill-timed parsimony kept her fleet insufficiently supplied with powder, the Armada would have been destroyed. As it was, Sidonia fled away into the North Sea. "There was never anything pleased me better," wrote Drake to Walsingham, "than seeing the enemy flying with a southerly wind to the northwards. With the grace of God, if we live, I doubt not ere it be long so to handle the matter with the Duke of Sidonia as he shall wish himself at St. Mary Port among his orange-trees." With part of the fleet, Howard and Drake clung to their enemy till their scanty provisions ran short. "Notwithstanding that our powder and shot was well near all spent," wrote Howard, "we set on a brag countenance and gave him chase, as though we had wanted nothing, until he had cleared our own coast and some part of Scotland." Even then the misfortunes of the Armada were only begun; the gale rose to a storm, scattering the ships about in the seas of Scotland and Ireland, which were almost unknown to the Spaniards; and only fifty-four vessels lived to

creep shattered home. The English rejoiced, though modestly, over their success. To them and to all Protestants it seemed that Heaven had fought for them.

5. **The Earl of Essex.**—Leicester, dying in the midst of the rejoicing, was succeeded in the Queen's favour by *Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex*, whose father, *Walter, Earl of Essex*, was noted for an adventurous but unsuccessful attempt to subdue and colonize Ulster. Young Essex, gallant but headstrong, acquitted himself brilliantly as the leader of an expedition which took the town of Cadiz; but he was not so successful in the Lord Lieutenancy of Ireland, to which he was appointed that he might subdue the rebel *Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone*. The Queen found fault with his conduct, upon which Essex, believing that he was being undermined by his rivals at court, and presuming on Elizabeth's fondness for him, left his post unbidden, and abruptly presented himself before her. But Elizabeth, rejecting his excuses, sent out *Lord Mountjoy* to bring Ireland into order; while Essex was deprived of his offices, and ordered into confinement in his own house. For a time he lived quietly, but, finding that his enemies were bent on his ruin, he determined to try to get back his power by force. With a view to removing the Queen's advisers, he gathered his friends round him, and marched into the City, trusting that the Londoners would take up arms in his behalf. But no one stirred to help him, and it was with difficulty that he escaped to his house, where he surrendered. He was found guilty of treason, and, favourite of the Queen though he had been, was beheaded in 1601, at the age of thirty-three. Tyrone, notwithstanding that an armament was sent from Spain to his aid, was reduced by Mountjoy to submission, and received a pardon.

6. **Monopolies.**—One great abuse of the time was the practice of the Crown granting to favoured

persons *monopolies*, that is, the exclusive right of dealing in some particular article. Thus Essex had had a monopoly of sweet wines, from which he drew the greater part of his income; and he had been driven nearly desperate when, during his disgrace, the Queen refused to continue it to him, saying that "a restive horse must be broken into the ring by stinting him of his provender." In 1601 a list of these monopolies was read out in Parliament. "Is not bread among the number?" said a member, adding a prediction that at any rate it would be there soon. Elizabeth, though imperious, knew how to yield gracefully, and seeing what a ferment was being raised, she sent word that she would revoke or suspend her obnoxious patents. A deputation was sent from the Commons to convey their thanks to the Queen, who made a speech in answer. "Though," she wound up, "you have had, or may have, many princes more mighty and wise sitting in this seat, yet you never had, or shall have, any that will be more careful and loving."

7. **Death of Elizabeth.**—Queen Elizabeth died at Richmond, in the seventieth year of her age, March 24, 1603. Robert Cecil, her chief minister, affirmed that she declared by signs that *King James VI.* of Scotland should succeed her. This is not certain, but at any rate James was proclaimed King of England.

8. **The East India Company.**—On the 31st December, 1600, a charter of privileges was granted to a recently formed company of London merchants trading to the East Indies. This was the famous *East India Company*, and from this sprang the British dominion in India.

CHAPTER XXXII.

JAMES I.

James I. (1)—*Ralegh sentenced to death; imprisonment and death of Arabella Stuart* (2)—*Puritans; Roman Catholics; the Gunpowder Plot* (3)—*James's favourites; beheading of Ralegh; strife between King and Parliament; Bacon; the proposed Spanish marriage* (4)—*death of James; his children; Great Britain* (5)—*plantation of Ulster; baronets* (6)—*colonies and voyages* (7)—*translations of the Bible* (8)—*learning and literature* (9)—*poetry and the drama* (10).

1. **House of Stuart. James I., 1603—1625.**—According to the will of Henry VIII. the crown should have gone to the descendants of Mary, Duchess of Suffolk; but *James VI. of Scotland*, son of Mary Stuart and her second husband Lord Darnley, was the nearest heir by birth, the nation was willing to accept him, and after his coronation an Act of Parliament was passed declaring his right. His birth being the strongest point in his favour, it became his interest to encourage the new doctrine of "*divine right*," that is, the belief that an hereditary prince derives his authority from Heaven alone, and that therefore no laws can limit it, or take it from him. These dignified pretensions accorded little with the character and appearance of James; for he was ungainly in person, unkingly in bearing, so timorous that he shuddered at a drawn sword; and though good-natured and well-meaning, he had few qualities of a ruler. Yet he was clever in his own way, and his learning—especially in theology—was considerable. He had been brought up in the Reformed Church of Scotland, which in

1592 had been placed under the *Presbyterian* system, that is, it was governed by courts of ministers and elders, who were called *presbyters*. James however was already working for the restoration in his own country of episcopacy, and he grew attached to the English Church on finding that its clergy treated him more respectfully than the Scots ministers had ever done. "No bishop, no King," became his maxim, and he soon learned to hate the English Puritans, thinking that he should find them as troublesome as their Scottish brethren.

2. **Arabella Stuart.**—In the first year of this reign, Sir Walter Ralegh was condemned to death on a charge of having conspired to raise to the throne, by the help of Spain, *Arabella Stuart*, first cousin of James. He was however reprieved, and spent thirteen years as a prisoner in the Tower. Arabella, having had no share in the plot, was unmolested until eight years later, when she had privately married *William Seymour*, a descendant of the Duchess of Suffolk. This union of two possible pretenders to the throne gave alarm; and Arabella was arbitrarily shut up in the Tower, where she became insane and died.

3. **Puritans and Roman Catholics. The Gunpowder Plot.**—Early in 1604, a conference between dignitaries of the Church and leading Puritan divines was held before the King at Hampton Court. Some slight alterations were made in the Prayer-book, and a new translation of the Bible was ordered. This was finished in 1611, and is still our "*Authorized Version.*" The Puritans were not satisfied, for, with a few exceptions, the practices to which they objected were retained, and no deviation from the established order was tolerated. Nothing short of excluding from the Church all doctrines but their own would have fully satisfied the Puritans; but the way in which they were rebuked and browbeaten by the King

and the bishops was not likely to soothe them. James felt proud of having argued them down. "If this be all they have to say," he observed triumphantly, "I shall make them conform themselves, or I will harry them out of the land." And in fact about three hundred refractory clergymen were turned out of their livings. As for the Roman Catholics, who had been led to form hopes of some indulgence from James, they were embittered by a proclamation banishing their priests. For this a fearful vengeance was devised. *Robert Catesby*, a Roman Catholic gentleman, proposed to a few trusty friends to blow up the Parliament House with gunpowder on the day the King was to open the session. King, Lords, and Commons thus disposed of, some of the confederates were to raise the Roman Catholic gentry, and proclaim one of the King's younger children as the new sovereign: for the eldest, Prince *Henry*, would, it was expected, accompany his father and perish with him. Before the scheme was complete, James had the laws against "Popish recusants" (that is, those who refused to come to church) enforced in all their harshness; and these severities only spurred on the plotters. A cellar under the House of Lords was hired, and barrels of gunpowder there laid under faggots and coals. The task of firing the mine was deputed to *Guy* or *Guido Faukes*, an Englishman who had served on the Spanish side in the Netherlands. The number of the conspirators was gradually raised to thirteen; their last ally, *Francis Tresham*, seems to have been the cause of their ruin. Everything was ready against the opening of the session, which was fixed for the 5th November, 1605, when Tresham's brother-in-law *Lord Mounteagle*, also a Roman Catholic, was warned by an anonymous letter to keep away from Parliament. This he showed to Cecil, Earl of Salisbury; investigation followed, and about midnight, on the eve of the 5th November, Faukes was seized in the cellar.

On hearing of this, the chief conspirators fled, but were soon killed or taken. Catesby was among the slain; Tresham died in prison; and the survivors, including Faukes, were put to a traitor's death. Catesby's intended crime bore bitter fruit for those he had hoped to serve, as the "*Gunpowder Treason*" deepened the hatred felt by the English in general for the Church of Rome, and put an end for centuries to come to any chance of relief for the Roman Catholics. New and more severe laws were made against "Popish recusants," and a new oath of allegiance was imposed, renouncing in the strongest terms the doctrine that princes excommunicated by the Pope might be deposed or murdered by their subjects or others. This oath caused a division among the Roman Catholics, some taking it, others, at the bidding of *Pope Paul V.*, refusing to do so. As James was not disposed to persecution, the laws against the Roman Catholics were, much to the dissatisfaction of the Puritans, not always fully executed.

4. **Government of James.**—After the death of Salisbury in 1612, King James gave his confidence to a young Scottish favourite, *Robert Carr*, whom he afterwards created *Earl of Somerset*. Somerset mixed himself up in scandalous and criminal doings, which not only led to his own ruin, but reflected discredit upon his master. After Somerset's disgrace, the royal favour passed to *George Villiers*, created successively *Earl*, *Marquess*, and *Duke of Buckingham*, a handsome young Englishman, whom James nicknamed "Steenie," and by whom he allowed himself to be treated with rude familiarity. Meanwhile the King's rule did not please his subjects. His foreign policy was unpopular; for, instead of placing himself at the head of the Protestant party throughout Europe, he sought the alliance of Spain; and this leaning to the great Roman Catholic power soon began to rouse discontent. In 1616 Ralegh was let out of prison, and got leave to

go on an expedition to Guiana, there to open a gold mine he averred he knew of. There was risk of strife with the Spaniards, who claimed the New World and its treasures for their own; but the desire of gold overpowered the King's habitual caution. Ralegh, though warned that if he did any hurt to a Spaniard his head should pay for it, believed that success would excuse disobedience. When his fleet reached the Orinoco, he sent a party up the river without distinct orders not to fight. They came into conflict with the neighbouring Spanish settlers, whose town they burned; but they did not find the mine. The Spaniards, not without reason, complained of Ralegh as a pirate; and on his return, empty-handed, he was beheaded, not avowedly for any fresh fault he had committed, but on his old sentence. The nation was indignant, for he was looked on as a sacrifice to the vengeance of Spain. Neither did James manage home affairs well; he was ever at variance with his Parliaments, they striving after more freedom, he aiming at absolute power. Not that he really wanted more power than the Tudors had exercised; but there was this difference between him and Elizabeth, that her policy had in the main satisfied the wishes of the nation, while his ran counter to them. The Parliament of 1614 has had the epithet of "addled" fixed upon it, because ere it had passed a single Act the King dissolved it in anger; after which he supplied himself with money by a "benevolence." In 1621 a Parliament met which boldly attacked monopolies, corruption, and other abuses; the Lord Chancellor, *Francis Bacon*, famous as one of our greatest philosophers, was charged by the Commons with taking bribes, and thereupon was sentenced by the Lords to be for ever incapable of holding any office. But the Commons had less success when they touched upon foreign affairs, which at that time were occupying everybody's thoughts. In 1619 the Protestants of *Bohemia*, then in revolt, had set up

as their King the *Elector Palatine Frederick V.*, who was the head of the Protestant princes of Germany, and the son-in-law of King James. The Emperor, the Roman Catholic princes, and the Spaniards joined together against Frederick, who soon lost, not only his new kingdom, but his own German lands as well. James wished to recover the inheritance of his daughter's husband, but still he would not break with Spain, because he wanted to marry his son *Charles, Prince of Wales*, to the *Infanta Maria*, daughter of King Philip III. of Spain. When the Commons drew up a petition praying him to make war upon Spain and to marry his son to a Protestant, he told them they had no right to meddle in such matters; and when they replied by protesting their right to treat of any business they pleased, he tore with his own hand the protestation out of their Journal Book, and dissolved the Parliament. The unpopular scheme of a Spanish marriage was still pursued. The Prince, accompanied by the favourite Buckingham, travelled in disguise to Madrid to see his intended bride; but, though a marriage treaty was concluded, in the end it was, to the great joy of the English, broken off. Charles and his friend came home out of temper, and bent upon war.

5. **Death of James.**—King James died of ague, March 27, 1625. He was the author of many works in prose and verse, notably of a treatise against the practice of smoking tobacco. His wife was *Anne of Denmark*, and his children were *Henry Frederick, Prince of Wales*, who died in 1612; *Charles*, who succeeded to the throne; and *Elizabeth*, the so-called *Queen of Bohemia*, wife of *Frederick V., Elector Palatine*. James took the title of *King of Great Britain*, and had a national flag devised, on which the crosses of the patron saints of England and Scotland, *St. George* and *St. Andrew*, were blended—the first "*Union Jack*";—but England and Scotland, though they had for the

time fallen to one and the same sovereign, remained otherwise entirely separate.

6. **Plantation of Ulster.**—A few years after James's accession, the Earl of Tyrone, together with another great chieftain of the north of Ireland, *Roderick O'Donnell, Earl of Tyrconnel*, having engaged, or being suspected of having engaged, in a conspiracy, fled to foreign parts, and were attainted of treason. On their outlawry, and the rebellion and death in 1608 of a third chieftain, *Sir Cahir O'Dogharty*, Lord of Innishowen, the greater part of *Ulster* was forfeited to the Crown, which thereupon granted out land in it to Scotch and English settlers, and these new-comers soon made it the most flourishing district in Ireland. This system of "planting" was extended to Leinster; but, with apparent good, much evil was done. Many of the native owners were turned out, and several *septs*, or clans, were transplanted to other parts of the island. A sense of injustice rankled in the hearts of the Irish; and they sighed for their old lords, tyrants and oppressors though these had been. In order, so he professed, to raise funds for the protection of the Ulster settlers, James created an order of hereditary knights called *Baronets*, and required of all who received this new title a sum of money, as much as would support thirty soldiers for three years.

7. **Colonies and Voyages.**—In 1607, some adventurers sent out by a London Company of Merchants founded in Virginia *James Town*, the first permanent settlement of Englishmen in North America. In 1620, a body of Independents, who had been driven from England to Holland by the laws against non-conformity, sailed for North America, and settled in *New England*, at a place to which they gave the name of *Plymouth*. These are the most ancient of those colonies which afterwards, throwing off the rule of the mother-country, formed the *United States of America*. Fresh efforts were made in this

reign to find a North-West passage. *Henry Hudson* in 1610 sailed through the Strait and explored the Bay now called by his name. In those seas he perished, for his crew, which had suffered much from want of provisions, mutinied, and sent him and eight of his followers adrift in an open boat. Nothing more was heard of them. Further discoveries were made by *Thomas Button*, the first navigator who reached the eastern coast of America through Hudson's Strait, and by *Robert Bylot* and *William Baffin*, who discovered and penetrated to the most northern extremity of *Baffin's Bay*.

8. **Translations of the Bible.**—High among the early English Reformers stands *William Tyndale*, a Gloucestershire man, who, moving about from town to town in Germany and the Netherlands, devoted himself to translating the Scriptures. Wycliffe's translation had been made from the Latin, and was full of Latin idioms. Tyndale, being a good Hebrew and Greek scholar, was able to translate from the originals. He was moreover a master of English, and his version of the New Testament, printed at Worms in 1525, may be said to have fixed the form of our language. To some of his translations he appended notes and prologues, partly of his own composition, partly taken from Luther. Archbishop *Warham*, Cranmer's predecessor, endeavoured to stop the circulation of Tyndale's Testament by buying up abroad and destroying all the copies which could be procured—a proceeding which only encouraged the foreign printers to send forth fresh editions—and more than once Testaments were publicly burned in London. Tyndale came to his end in 1536, being put to death near Brussels as a heretic. In the next year his friend Rogers, the first martyr under Queen Mary, brought out an edition of the Bible, in which the New Testament and part of the Old were Tyndale's work, the rest being reprinted from a version by *Miles Coverdale*.

A new edition of this Bible, revised by Coverdale under the patronage of Thomas Cromwell, was printed in 1539, and reprinted in 1540 with a preface by Cranmer. This was the *Great Bible*, which was set up in every parish church in England. Upon this and other versions of the Tudor reigns was founded the *Bishops' Bible*, edited by Archbishop Parker; and although in the preparation of the present Authorized Version, or *King James's Bible*, extraordinary care was bestowed upon its translation from the originals, the eminent divines employed on the task adhered as closely as possible to the language and style of its predecessors. The language is therefore rather that of the time of Henry VIII. than of James I., and it has had a great effect in fixing the standard of the English speech and preserving it from modern corruptions. The Puritans used by preference the *Geneva Bible*, an edition with side-notes, the work of Protestant refugees at Geneva in the time of Queen Mary. The spreading abroad of the Scriptures affected the whole course of religion, politics, and literature. Men turned eagerly to the Bible for light on the religious questions of the day; the Puritans above all studied it till its phrases became household words in their mouths, and they learned to think of themselves as the successors of the Chosen People of old.

9. **Learning and Literature.**—In the sixteenth century, the study of the ancient Greek language, till then almost unknown, was introduced into England. *William Grocyn*, who, having acquired a knowledge of Greek in Italy, had begun to teach it at Oxford about the end of the preceding century, is honoured as "*the patriarch of English learning*." He and a knot of like-minded men in 1510 brought over the great scholar of the Netherlands, *Erasmus*, to teach at Cambridge. *Thomas Linacre*, eminent in medicine, who was the first president of the *College of Physicians*, also

held high rank among men of learning. One of Grocyn's pupils, *Sir Thomas More*—the same More whom Henry VIII. sent to the scaffold—is the author of *Utopia*, a work in Latin, descriptive of an imaginary commonwealth, from which the epithet of "utopian" is now applied to fanciful political schemes. Although education was not general, yet in a select circle of scholarly taste or exalted rank the standard was high. Lady Jane Grey, who spoke, as well as wrote, Greek, Latin, Italian, and French, and also understood Hebrew and Arabic, was especially renowned for her learning. When found at home reading Plato, while the rest of the household were out hunting, she accounted for her love of books by saying that her parents were so harsh and severe, that she was never happy except when with her tutor, who was always gentle and pleasant. Henry VIII., himself a good scholar, had his children carefully taught. *Sir John Cheke*, one of the tutors of Edward VI., was the first professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge. He was a Protestant, but in Mary's reign recanted to save himself from burning, and pined to death with shame at his own weakness. Queen Elizabeth could speak Greek fairly, Latin fluently, and French and Italian as readily as her mother-tongue; and these acquirements she kept up after she had ascended the throne, reading with her tutor *Roger Ascham* for some hours daily. Among the learned men who graced the reigns of Elizabeth and James was *William Camden*, author of the *Britannia*, an account of the British Isles written in Latin. He founded in the University of Oxford an historical lecture, still called after him the *Camden* professorship. *Francis Bacon*, successively created *Baron Verulam* and *Viscount St. Albans*, who has already been spoken of as Lord Chancellor, stands intellectually, though not morally, among the greatest of mankind. The philosophical work on which his fame rests is in Latin; but to ordinary readers he is

best known by his English *Essays*, a name which he was the first to give to that species of composition. The finest of the Elizabethan prose authors was *Richard Hooker*, Master of the Temple, who defended the established form of Church government against the Puritans. Two of Elizabeth's favourite courtiers held literary rank—*Sir Philip Sidney*, author of the *Arcadia*, a half chivalrous, half pastoral romance, which, though to modern taste tedious, was long exceedingly popular; and *Sir Walter Ralegh*, who, while a prisoner in the Tower, employed himself in the laborious undertaking of writing a *History of the World*. This however he never finished. Sidney is also the author of *An Apology for Poetry*, in which he defends poetry, plays, and fictitious writing generally against the attacks of the Puritan party. Much both of the poetry and prose of the time is marred by a strained and fantastic style, of which the great master was *John Lyly*, from whose story of *Euphues* it has got its name of *Euphuism*.

10. **Poetry and the Drama.**—*Sir Thomas Wyatt*, father of the insurgent Wyatt of Queen Mary's reign, and the ill-fated *Earl of Surrey*, who died on the scaffold in 1547, were the leaders of a school of poets who followed Italian models. Surrey, a graceful and polished writer, though hardly a man of genius, was the first to use, in his translation of the Æneid, what we now call *blank verse*. To the Italian school also belonged the great Elizabethan poet, *Edmund Spenser*, author of the *Faery Queen*, a long though unfinished tale of chivalrous adventure, veiling a religious and political allegory. Spenser's poem represents the wide range of thought of the Elizabethan age—in it the old knightly romances are mixed up with fictions borrowed from the classical poets, and with the Protestant ideas of his own time. His was the form of Protestantism which adored Elizabeth and hated the power of Rome, and Mary

Queen of Scots as the championess of that power, but which had nothing of the Puritan austerity and hostility to episcopacy. The age was fertile in poets, among whom Sidney may again be mentioned as a writer of graceful love poems; and some of the most spirited of the English ballads belong to the reigns of Elizabeth and James. Dramatic art was now making an advance. Of the earliest attempts, the *mysteries* and *miracle plays*, we have specimens as old as the time of Edward III. These, which were acted in churchyards or streets, were rude representations of Biblical stories, and in the days of few books and little general education, were thought useful for teaching Scripture history to the people. Next came the *moralities*, allegorical dramas, which were distinguished by the introduction of a character called the *Vice*, who played a part much like that of Punch in the puppet-shows. The first regular English comedy, *Ralph Roister Doister*, was composed probably as early as the reign of Henry VIII., by *Nicholas Udal*, master first of Eton, and afterwards of Westminster School, who was wont to write plays for his scholars to act. This piece gave a picture of the manners of the London gallants and citizens. Under Elizabeth the taste spread; the first theatres, rude buildings, open, except above the stage, to the weather, were erected; and a school of playwrights sprang up. Some of these early dramatists show great power; but they have all been thrown into the shade by *William Shakspere*, the greatest name in English literature. Little is known of his life beyond the mere outline. Born in 1564 at Stratford-upon-Avon, where his father was a well-to-do townsman, he became an actor and playwright, holding a share in the Blackfriars theatre, which was built in 1576. He was also one of the proprietors of the Globe theatre on the Bankside, which was built in 1594. Retiring in his latter days to his native town, he there

died in 1616. In the deep knowledge of human nature which his dramas display, no other has ever approached him; and he is further distinguished by his healthy moral tone, and by the national spirit which pervades his historical plays. In them is expressed the fearless temper of the generation which drove back the Armada, and its pride in its sovereign and its country, "this royal throne of kings, this sceptred isle." After Shakspere, though far below him, stands *Benjamin*, or as he is always called, *Ben*, *Jonson*. Other contemporary dramatists of repute were *Francis Beaumont* and *John Fletcher*, who wrote in concert, and so identified themselves with each other that it is almost impossible to distinguish their respective shares in their joint work. They represent the tone of thought and the type of men of the court of James I. Fletcher appears also to have had the honour of being a coadjutor of Shakspere; the greater part of the play of *Henry VIII.*, which goes under Shakspere's name, is believed to have been the work of Fletcher. After Beaumont's death in 1615, Fletcher was assisted by *Philip Massinger*, another of the great dramatic poets of the Elizabethan school. Massinger, who died in the reign of Charles I., is best remembered by his character of *Sir Giles Overreach.* This was meant for Sir Giles Mompesson, a fraudulent monopolist, who was impeached by the Commons in 1621.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CHARLES I.

Charles I.; Henrietta Maria; Petition of Right; murder of Buckingham; Sir John Eliot (1)—*Wentworth and Laud; the Star Chamber* (2)—*ship-money* (3)—*the Long Parliament; beheading of Strafford* (4)—*the Irish Rebellion; the Grand Remonstrance; the Five*

Members; the Civil War; Presbyterians and Independents; Oliver Cromwell; battles of Marston Moor and Naseby; Charles given up by the Scots (5) —*the Covenant; beheading of Laud* (6)—*the army; the Second Civil War* (7)—"*Pride's Purge*"; *the High Court of Justice* (8)—*trial and beheading of the King* (9)—*his children* (10).

1. Charles I., 1625-1649. The Petition of Right.—Shortly after his accession the young King married *Henrietta Maria*, daughter of the great Henry IV. of France—an alliance which, though less hateful than one with Spain, was yet not liked, as the bride was a Roman Catholic. Charles himself, 'dignified in his bearing,' well conducted, and religious, was welcomed as a great improvement on his predecessor; but events soon showed that his father's maxims of arbitrary authority had sunk deep into his heart. The strife between King and Parliament began at once; for while the King wanted money for war with Spain, the Parliament wanted redress of grievances and the removal of Buckingham, who was more powerful than ever. After dissolving two Parliaments within the space of a year, Charles had recourse to arbitrary methods of raising money, until a petty and mismanaged war on behalf of the French Protestants so increased his difficulties that he had to summon a third Parliament. This, by granting him five *subsidies* (taxes levied on every subject according to the value of his lands or goods), obtained his assent to its *Petition of Right*, by which the recent illegal practices —arbitrary taxes and imprisonment, forced billetings of soldiers upon the people, exercise of martial law—were condemned (June 7, 1628). Emboldened by victory, the Commons presented a remonstrance against the excessive power of Buckingham as the chief cause of the national calamities;—words which had a terrible effect, for about two months later the Duke, then at Portsmouth making ready for an expedition against

France, was stabbed to death by one John Felton, who thought by this crime to do his country service. Though the Duke was gone, other causes of strife remained. Charles levied of his sole authority certain duties on exports and imports, called tonnage and poundage; and this the Commons asserted to be contrary to the Petition of Right. Religious grievances came in to embitter the dispute. The King favoured and promoted clergymen who taught doctrines differing from those in which most Protestants of that generation had been brought up; new ceremonies, or rather old ones revived, were introduced into the churches. All this put the Commons into an angry mood, and Charles tried to keep things quiet by ordering the House to adjourn. But when the Speaker rose to leave the chair, two members, Denzil Holles and Benjamin Valentine, held him down by force; the doors were locked, and amid shouts of "Aye! Aye!" Holles read out three resolutions which had been drawn up by *Sir John Eliot*, the leader of the Opposition party,—Whoever should bring in opinions disagreeing from the true and orthodox Church, whoever should advise the levying of tonnage and poundage without grant of Parliament, whoever should pay these duties, was to be accounted an enemy to the kingdom (March 2, 1629). Upon this the King again dissolved Parliament; and Sir John Eliot, with Holles and some other members who had "aided and abetted" him, were sent to prison, where Eliot, refusing to make any submission, was kept till his death.

2. **Wentworth and Laud.**—Charles, now resolving to govern, at least for the time, without Parliaments, found two ministers to serve his purpose—*Thomas, Viscount Wentworth*, better known by his later title of *Earl of Strafford*, and *William Laud, Bishop of London*, afterwards *Archbishop of Canterbury*. These two laboured zealously to make their master

absolute—a scheme which they spoke of among themselves by the term of "*Thorough.*" Wentworth was a wealthy Yorkshire landowner, who had been one of the most distinguished members of the Opposition in the Lower House, but having gone over to the King, had been raised to the Peerage, and made President of the *Council of the North*, a tribunal which exercised special powers north of the Humber, and for which Lord Wentworth now obtained almost unlimited authority. He was next removed to Ireland, which he governed with ability indeed, but in the most despotic manner. Laud devoted himself to forcing the Puritans into conformity to the rules and ceremonies of the Church. Ready instruments were found in the Court of High Commission founded by Elizabeth, and in the more ancient Court of *Star Chamber*, so called because it sat in a room known by that name. The Star Chamber was a court of members of the Privy Council, together with the two Chief Justices, which had by degrees usurped a power of punishing anything that could be called a contempt of the King's authority. Extensive as the power of these courts had been before the accession of Charles, they now stretched it still further, and became still more harsh and inquisitorial. Puritans who had written books held libellous were objects of special rigour, and the Star Chamber, not content with fine and imprisonment, inflicted cruel and shameful punishments, which only served to excite admiration for the fortitude of the victims and hatred of the government.

3. **Ship-Money.**—Meanwhile the King had to resort to various devices for raising money. He wanted a fleet, and his advisers bethought themselves that in time of war the maritime counties had occasionally been called upon to furnish ships. This had been done in Elizabeth's reign, and indeed once in his own. Accordingly he first demanded ships, or

money in lieu of them, from the towns and counties on the coast; and then, going a step further, he levied "ship-money" upon every shire. *John Hampden*, a country gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused, as did also some others, to pay his share. The sum was small, but on it turned the question whether the King or the House of Commons should be supreme; for if the King could take what money he pleased, he would soon be able to do what else he pleased. On the case being argued, the majority of the judges decided against Hampden; but the arguments in favour of the lawfulness of the tax were so weak that Charles lost more than he gained by his victory, while Hampden's courage raised him high in the estimation of his countrymen. Ship-money continued to be levied, but amid growing opposition.

4. **The Long Parliament.**—In 1638, the year in which the decision in favour of ship-money was given, the Scots were driven into rebellion by the King attempting to force upon them a liturgy much like that of England. High and low pledged themselves by a bond or "Covenant" to resist the innovations, and thus became known as *Covenanters*. Charles in 1639 marched against the insurgents, but, with an empty treasury and disaffected troops being unable to do anything, he was reduced to patch up a treaty. In hopes of obtaining money, he called, early in 1640, a Parliament, known as "*the Short Parliament*," which he dissolved after three and twenty days; but by the renewal of the Scottish war and the invasion of England by a Scottish army, he was that same year constrained to summon another, since famed as "*the Long Parliament*." The Commons, led by the great orator *John Pym*, member for Tavistock, at once impeached of treason Strafford and Laud. Strafford was brought to trial; but as it was doubtful whether the offences charged against him amounted legally to high treason, the Commons, going in this against Pym's wishes,

dropped the impeachment, and a Bill of Attainder was passed, to which Charles in tears gave his assent. "Put not your trust in princes," was the Earl's exclamation. Strafford walked to the scaffold on Tower Hill bearing himself "more like a general at the head of an army than like a condemned man." As he passed by the window of Laud's prison-chamber, he paused to receive the Archbishop's blessing. Laud lifted up his hands to bestow it; but, overcome with grief, he fell back fainting. "Farewell, my Lord," said the Earl, "God protect your innocency." Strafford was beheaded on the 12th May, 1641, and with him fell the system of government he had endeavoured to establish. The Star Chamber, the High Commission, and the Council of the North were abolished; and the levies of ship-money were declared to have been illegal. The Parliament also secured itself by an Act providing that it should not be dissolved without its own consent. Ecclesiastical matters were still unsettled, and on these disagreements arose, for there were many who, though willing to curtail the powers of the Bishops, did not go with the extreme party which wished to do away with them altogether—to "cut them off root and branch," as the phrase was. Thus there grew up a moderate party, of which the foremost members were *Lucius Carey, Viscount Falkland*, and *Edward Hyde*, afterwards created *Earl of Clarendon*.

5. **The Civil War.**—Although Charles had now yielded so much that many began to turn towards him, he was still mistrusted by Pym and his party. When, in the autumn of 1641, the Irish rose in rebellion and slaughtered the Ulster colonists, some suspected, though unjustly, that Charles had himself stirred up this outbreak, which soon became a general insurrection of the Irish Roman Catholics. Pym and his friends in Parliament framed a "*Grand Remonstrance*," setting forth all the past grievances against the King, and

urging on him the employment only of ministers whom the Parliament could trust. The Remonstrance was opposed by Hyde, Falkland, and the moderate party; and a stormy debate ensued, which lasted from noon till two o'clock the next morning. A small majority carried the Remonstrance, but the debate waxed yet hotter when it was proposed to print it. Excited members handled their sword-hilts, and a fray seemed imminent, when Hampden's calm voice recalled them to reason (Nov. 22 and 23, 1641). The King's own violence was his ruin. Attended by some five hundred armed men, he went, on the 4th Jan. 1642, to the House of Commons, there to seize Pym, Hampden, Holles, and two other leading members of the Opposition, whom he had caused to be impeached of treason. Warning having been timely conveyed, the accused had withdrawn; and when Charles demanded of the Speaker Lenthall whether they were there, Lenthall, falling on his knees, answered, "May it please your Majesty, I have neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak in this place, but as the House is pleased to direct me." Charles saw, as he expressed it, that "his birds were flown;" and as he moved out of the House, cries of "Privilege! privilege!" followed him, for it was held that the King's proceedings were a breach of the privileges enjoyed by Parliament. Six days later Charles withdrew from London; and upon his refusal to comply with the Parliament's demand that the control of the militia should be given up to it, men saw plainly that a civil war was at hand. *Sir John Hotham*, governor of the strong town of *Hull*, where there was a large magazine of arms, shut its gates against the King when he demanded admittance; and his conduct was approved by the Parliament, which proceeded to place the militia under the command of Lords-Lieutenant appointed by itself. A majority of the Lords and many of the Commons joined the King; both parties made ready to draw

the sword, and on the 22nd August, 1642, Charles set up at Nottingham his standard, which bore the motto, "Give Cæsar his due," and called on his subjects to rally round him. The two parties in this struggle were distinguished as *Royalists* and *Parliamentarians*, or more familiarly as *Cavaliers* and *Roundheads*. The last name is said by some to have been given because the extreme Puritans cropped their hair short, in opposition to the prevailing fashion of wearing it long. On the whole the north-west of England, then the wilder and less thickly-peopled part of the country, was for the King; and the busier and wealthier south-east, with the city of London, was for the Parliament. *Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex*, son of Elizabeth's favourite, a soldier who had seen service in the Netherlands, was appointed commander-in-chief of the Parliament army, and opposed the King in person at *Edgehill* in Warwickshire, where, on the 23rd October, an indecisive battle, the first important action of the war, was fought. Things at first looked well for the King, whose cavalry gained many successes. Their leader, *Prince Rupert*, a son of the Queen of Bohemia, was the terror of the Parliament's raw levies; but he was rash and headlong, and the licence of plunder he gave to his men brought discredit on his party. With artillery and ammunition Charles was ill provided, though the Queen, then in Holland, procured what she could with funds obtained by the sale of her own and the crown jewels. In February, 1643, she arrived with four ships, and landed at Bridlington, where the Parliamentary admiral Batten fired so hotly upon the house in which she was lodged that she had to take shelter in a neighbouring ditch. In June, the same year, the noble and blameless Hampden, who had proved one of the best of the Parliament officers, was mortally wounded in a skirmish with Rupert at *Chalgrove*. Another man of note, of the opposite party, perished not long afterwards in

the indecisive battle of *Newbury* (Sept. 20). This was Lord Falkland, who, though he had acted with the popular party against Strafford, had been led by his dislike of Puritan domination to separate himself from his old friends and to adhere to the King, who made him one of his Secretaries of State. To Falkland, whose one prayer was for peace, and who was often heard to exclaim that the war was breaking his heart, death came as a relief. About this time, when the King was on the whole gaining ground, the Parliament entered into alliance with the Scots, who in the beginning of 1644 sent an army to its aid. Charles meanwhile made a truce with the insurgent Roman Catholics in Ireland in order that he might bring over troops from thence, and summoned those of the Peers and Commons who adhered to his party to meet in Parliament at Oxford, where they accordingly assembled. In the Parliament at Westminster, men of *Presbyterian* opinions had hitherto been the prevailing party; but in the army the sect of the *Independents* was gaining power. Both were opposed to *episcopacy* or *prelacy*; but beyond that, they ceased to agree. The Presbyterians had a regular system of church government by councils of ministers and elders, and wished to enforce their doctrines throughout the land; while the Independents looked on every congregation as an independent church, competent to direct itself without interference from any other power. To these latter belonged one of the most vigorous of the Roundhead officers, *Oliver Cromwell*, a Huntingdonshire gentleman, and a member of Parliament, who raised in the Eastern counties a famous regiment of horse, traditionally known as the *Ironsides*. Early in the war he had remarked to his cousin Hampden what a poor set of men were enlisted for the Parliament horse, unlikely to cope with the gallant gentlemen who composed the King's cavalry. "You must," he added, "get men of a spirit that is likely to go on as far as gentlemen

will go, or else you will be beaten still." Cromwell would enlist none but those whose hearts were in the cause, and who would submit to strict discipline, though he did not care to which of the many religious sects they belonged. "They were never beaten," he said afterwards. In 1643, it was in the Eastern counties alone, where Cromwell was serving under the *Earl of Manchester*, that the Parliament cause decidedly throve, and the Eastern forces, raised and trained under Cromwell's influence, were soon able to push further north, joining with the Yorkshire leaders, *Lord Fairfax* and his son *Sir Thomas*, and the Scots. In the battle of *Marston Moor*, July 2, 1644, the Royalists, after a long and fierce contest, were routed by the allied English and Scots. Cromwell wrote in triumph how his men had worsted Rupert's renowned horse :— "God made them as stubble to our swords." The victory placed the North in the power of the Parliament-generals. Early the next year, the Independents in Parliament managed to oust the Earls of Essex and Manchester, neither of them men of genius, and to obtain the entire re-modelling of the army. *Sir Thomas Fairfax*, who had been the mainstay of the Parliament cause in Yorkshire, and had won great credit at Marston Moor, received the chief command, with Cromwell as his second. The "New-Model army," its ranks filled with the flower of the Puritan yeomen and workmen, inflicted another defeat upon the Royalists at *Naseby*, June 14, 1645, so crushing as to render the King's cause thenceforth hopeless. Charles kept up the struggle till the following spring, when, in despair, he surrendered himself to the Scots army before Newark, and by it was subsequently delivered up to the English Parliament (Jan. 30, 1647).

6. **The Presbyterians.**—In 1643 the Houses bound themselves, after the Scottish fashion, in a "*Solemn League and Covenant*" to "endeavour the

extirpation" of "popery" and "prelacy." This Covenant—the condition upon which they had obtained the aid of the Scots, whose hearts were set upon establishing in England their own form of church government—they ordered to be subscribed by all men in office, all beneficed clergy, and generally by the whole nation. On non-compliance, hundreds of clergymen were turned out of their livings. All the Royalist members were driven from the Universities, first from Cambridge, and then from Oxford. Short work was made with what the Puritans deemed "monuments of superstition," wherever such still remained; altars, crosses, pictured windows were swept away or defaced. By an *ordinance* of Parliament, as the Acts of the two Houses were called, the aged Laud, who since his impeachment had lain apparently forgotten in the Tower, was condemned for high treason, and beheaded January 10, 1645—an act of needless revenge, which did the Presbyterian party no credit. The use of the Book of Common Prayer, even in private families, was forbidden; and episcopacy gave way to the Presbyterian system, which however, owing to the subsequent rise of the Independents, was never fully established except in Middlesex and Lancashire. Large domains belonging to the Bishops and the Crown were seized and sold, and heavy fines were laid on the vanquished Cavaliers.

7. **The Second Civil War.**—The King remained a prisoner, honourably treated, at Holmby House, near Northampton, for more than four months. Negotiations were proceeding between him and the Parliament, when the army took matters into its own hands, one Joyce, a cornet of Fairfax's guard, with a party of horse riding off to Holmby House, and bringing the King away. Charles asked Joyce by what authority he acted. "There is my commission," said the cornet, pointing to his troopers. "It is written in characters fair and legible enough," replied the King, smiling; and with little reluctance, he let himself

be carried off to the army, which, consisting mainly of Independents and other "sectaries," and objecting to have Presbyterianism forced upon it, was now the rival, not the servant, of Parliament. The soldiers had fought for liberty of conscience for themselves, and not simply to make Parliament supreme. Charles, filled with hope by the disunion of his adversaries, negotiated with all parties, Scots and English, Presbyterians and Independents, trying to play off one against the other. Cromwell and the chief officers wished to come to terms with him, provided they could secure the liberty of conscience they desired; but it was hopeless to treat with a man who was not sincere in any of his negotiations. Moreover, the fiercer spirits among the soldiers became so violent against the King, that at last, alarmed, as he said, for his life, he made his escape from Hampton Court, where he had been lodged, and threw himself into the power of Colonel Hammond, governor of the Isle of Wight, by whom he was placed in Carisbrooke Castle, from which he afterwards vainly sought to make his escape. This was after he had entered into a secret treaty with the Scots, by which he bound himself to maintain the Presbyterian system in England for three years, and they undertook to restore him to his throne. On all sides, in anticipation of the coming of the Scots, Royalist risings took place, first in Wales and the West, then in Kent and in the North; while the Scottish army, made up of Royalists and moderate Presbyterians, and led by the *Duke of Hamilton*, invaded England. But all these attempts were put down by the energy of Fairfax and Cromwell, the latter of whom routed the Scots at *Preston* and *Warrington* in Lancashire (Aug. 17 and 19, 1648). The southern insurgents, who had thrown themselves into *Colchester*, after a desperate defence, surrendered to Fairfax; and thus ended the brief struggle known as the *Second Civil War*.

8. **"Pride's Purge."**—Frightened at the temper of the army, the Parliament re-opened negotiations with the King at *Newport*. But the army had other views. Already before going forth to the Second Civil War, the army leaders, indignant at the King's conduct, had met, after their wont, for prayer and consultation, and had resolved that it was their duty, if ever they came back in peace, "to call Charles Stuart, that man of blood, to an account for that blood he had shed." Charles was now removed by soldiers to Hurst Castle, a lonely stronghold on the shore of the Solent, and as the Parliament decided to come to a reconciliation with him, it was "purged," —that is, the entrance to the House was barred by *Colonel Pride* with a regiment of foot, and more than a hundred members displeasing to the army party were shut out. Thus "purged," the Commons, or rather the remains of them, voted that it was treason in the King of England to levy war against the Parliament, and followed this up with an ordinance appointing a *High Court of Justice* to try Charles on that charge. The Lords refusing to concur, the Commons voted that the supreme authority resided in themselves, and the so-called High Court of Justice was finally constituted by the authority of the so-called Commons alone. The most notable of its members were Cromwell, his son-in-law *Henry Ireton*, and the president of the court *John Bradshaw*.

9. **Trial and Beheading of Charles.**—On the 20th January, 1649, the King was brought from St. James's Palace before the High Court in Westminster Hall. Of a hundred and thirty-five members of the Court, less than seventy, Cromwell being among them, were present. When the name of Fairfax, as one of the members, was called, his wife's voice was heard in answer, "He is not here, and will never be; you do him wrong to name him." Charles, bearing himself with kingly firmness and dignity, refused to acknow-

ledge the jurisdiction of the tribunal. Marks of public sympathy for him were not wanting, and the soldiers' shouts of "Justice!" "Execution!" were mingled with counter-cries of "God save the King!" On the last day, Jan. 27, of the trial, Charles requested a conference with the Lords and Commons, but was refused, and sentence of death was pronounced upon "Charles Stuart, King of England," as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation." The names of fifty-nine members of the Court were subscribed to the warrant of execution. Charles calmly resigned himself to his fate, taking a tender farewell of his two youngest children, the Princess Elizabeth, aged thirteen, and Henry, Duke of Gloucester, who was but eight. The rest of his time was spent at his devotions, in the company of William Juxon, Bishop of London, by whom he was attended on the scaffold in front of Whitehall, where he was beheaded, January 30. A few faithful adherents followed him to his grave in St. George's Chapel, Windsor. About a week after his death, the Commons voted that the House of Lords and the office of King were useless and dangerous, and ought to be abolished. By taking the life of Charles his enemies in reality exalted his fame. The execution of a King was a thing hitherto unheard of, and Royalist and Presbyterian alike stood aghast. The mass of his subjects, forgetting his misgovernment and faithlessness, only remembered that he had been condemned by an illegal and arbitrary tribunal, and that the ancient institutions of the nation had fallen with him. The Episcopalians, mindful how he had striven to maintain the Church in its power and dignity, styled him *Martyr*, and well-nigh worshipped his memory.

10. **Children of Charles.**—Of the children of Charles, his eldest sons, *Charles, Prince of Wales*, born 1630, and *James, Duke of York*, born 1633, each in turn

became King. *Mary* married *William, Prince of Orange Nassau*, who held the office of *Stadholder* or chief magistrate of *Holland*, and their son was afterwards King William III. of England. *Elizabeth*, and *Henry, Duke of Gloucester*, who were in the power of the Parliament, were treated after their father's death like the children of a private gentleman. Elizabeth died in 1650 in Carisbrooke Castle, where she had been placed together with her brother Henry, who, two years later, was allowed to join his family abroad. He died in 1660, soon after his brother Charles had been restored to the throne. *Henrietta Maria*, born 1644, married *Philip, Duke of Orleans*, brother of King Louis XIV. of France.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

The Commonwealth (1) — *the Irish War* (2) — *war with Scotland; battles of Dunbar and Worcester; escape of Charles* (3)—*the Dutch War* (4)—*the Long Parliament turned out by Cromwell* (5)—*the Little Parliament* (6)—*the Protectorate; Oliver Cromwell; offer of the Crown; "Oliver's Lords"* (7)—*foreign affairs* (8)—*death of Cromwell* (9)—*religious affairs, Fifth Monarchy men; Quakers* (10) — *Richard Cromwell* (11)—*General Monk: final dissolution of the Long Parliament* (12)—*Restoration of the King; character of the Puritans* (13).

1. **The Commonwealth**, 1649-1660. — The House of Commons, such as it was, for it now seldom exceeded some fifty members, had become the sole ruling power, and by it a *Council of State*, of which Bradshaw was the first president, was appointed to carry on the government. The Duke of Hamilton

and two other Royalist noblemen taken in the Second Civil War were beheaded, and England was declared a *Commonwealth* and *Free State*, to be governed without any King or House of Lords. Some voices however were raised in complaint that the new government was no better than the old; and in the army these malcontents—called "*Levellers*," because they held, or were accused of holding, that all degrees of men should be *levelled*, or placed on an equality as to rank and property—broke out into a mutiny, which was swiftly crushed by Cromwell.

2. **Ireland.**—Young *Charles*, who was regarded as King by every Royalist, was an exile abroad. His chief hopes lay in Ireland, where *James Butler*, *Marquess of Ormonde*, the Royalist Lord-Lieutenant, gathered round him every one, whether Roman Catholic, Episcopalian, or Presbyterian, who would fight for the King. Against these, the Council of State sent out, as their Lord-Lieutenant, Cromwell, who, by dint of unsparing severity towards all who resisted, and by drawing over the Protestants to the Parliament side, broke the strength of the Royalist cause. After nine months he was called away to Scotland, leaving Ireton to carry on his work in Ireland. Under the rule of the Commonwealth, permission was given to the Roman Catholic leaders and their followers to enter the service of foreign states; many of the Irish were shipped to the West Indies; large confiscations of land were made, certain counties of Munster, Leinster, and Ulster being portioned out among English "adventurers" (men who, upon the outbreak of the rebellion, had advanced money for quelling it, in consideration of forfeited lands to be allotted to them) and Parliamentary soldiers; while the old proprietors were "transplanted" to lands assigned to them in the wilds of Connaught and Clare.

3. **War with Scotland.** — Scotland, where Charles had arrived, and was accepted as King, was

next invaded by Cromwell, who, unable to bring the Scots to a battle, and with his troops distressed by sickness and scarcity of food, had eventually to fall back upon *Dunbar*. Before him was the Scots army under *David Lesley*, strongly posted on Doon Hill, behind him the sea, and on his left the enemy had seized the pass towards England. But the Scots beginning to descend the hill, Cromwell suddenly attacked them in flank, about daybreak on the 3rd September, 1650. As the sun rose over the sea, the English general exclaimed "Now let God arise, and His enemies shall be scattered;" and scattered the Scots were, in utter rout. In the course of the next year, whilst Cromwell was still engaged in Scotland, Charles and his army suddenly crossed the Border, and though their hopes of a rising in their favour were disappointed, they pushed as far as *Worcester*, where Cromwell overtook and defeated them on the anniversary of Dunbar. Cromwell wrote of this victory as "a crowning mercy;" and in fact it was the last battle he had to fight. The Parliament had declared the adherents of Charles traitors and rebels, and as such the *Earl of Derby* and two other prisoners suffered death. A reward of a thousand pounds was offered for the apprehension of Charles, who, having made his escape from Worcester, went through a succession of hazardous adventures, during which he entrusted himself to more than forty persons, none of whom failed in fidelity or caution. A Roman Catholic family of the name of *Penderell*, country folk living at or about Boscobel in Shropshire, were among the chief agents in his concealment. At one time, with hair cut short, and dressed as a peasant, he lay hidden in Boscobel wood; at another, shrouded in the thick leaves of a great oak-tree, he caught glimpses of the Parliament soldiers hunting up and down in search of fugitives. Having walked till he was footsore, he was glad, when he left Boscobel House for Moseley,

the abode of a Roman Catholic gentleman, to ride the horse of the miller, Humfrey Penderell, who, to Charles's complaint of its jolting pace, replied that he must remember it was carrying the weight of three kingdoms. Moseley he left in the disguise of servant to a gentlewoman, Jane Lane, who rode behind him on a pillion, as the manner then was for women to travel. Finally he and his friend Lord Wilmot sailed in a collier vessel from Brighton, then a small fishing village. He was recognized by the master, who however said he would venture life and all for him; and thus, after so many perils, Charles landed safely in Normandy. Such were the stories which in after days he loved to tell, and which loyal Cavaliers treasured up and repeated. The war in Scotland was carried on by one of Cromwell's officers, *General George Monk*, who brought the country under the authority of the English Parliament.

4. **The Dutch War.**—In 1652 a war broke out with the *Dutch*—as the people of the Seven United Provinces of the Netherlands were commonly called—between whom and the English there was much ill-will, arising partly out of commercial jealousy. This war is memorable as a trial of strength between Admiral *Robert Blake* and the great Dutch seamen *Martin Tromp* and *Michael de Ruyter*. Once, after worsting Blake in the Downs, Tromp, it is said, sailed through the Channel with a broom at his mast-head, to signify that he had swept those seas of the English—an insult which was afterwards avenged in three stubborn contests. Blake, owing to ill-health, was not in the last of these battles, fought in July, 1653, in which Tromp fell. One of the commanders of the English fleet was General Monk; for in those days the naval and military services were not kept separate. In the next year peace was made with the Dutch.

5. **Turning out of The Long Parliament.**—While this war was going on, the government was again

changed; for the rivalry between the Parliament—or "*the Rump*," as the remnant of the House of Commons was contemptuously called—and the army had ended in the triumph of the latter. The Parliament had already been prevailed upon to fix a day—too distant a day, as the army leaders thought—for its own dissolution; but there was the further question as to how its successor should be chosen. A bill for these purposes was before the House; but its provisions were not acceptable to the army leaders. On the 20th April, 1653, the Lord General Cromwell, having learned that the "Rump" was hurriedly passing the bill to which he objected, entered the House, and, after some praise of the Parliament's care for the public good, began to tax it with "injustice, delays of justice, self-interest." A member rose to remonstrate. "Come, come," cried Cromwell, "I will put an end to your prating." And calling in some twenty or thirty musketeers, he ordered the members out, upbraiding them as they went. Pointing to the mace, the symbol of authority, he bade a soldier "take away that bauble." The House was cleared, and the doors were locked.

6. **The Little Parliament.**—Cromwell had thus made himself master of England, and the only check upon him was the army. This army, combining perfect discipline with burning religious zeal, was unlike any ordinary military force. Officers and soldiers prayed and preached together: the troops lived, said a foreigner, "as if they were brotherhoods of monks." Proud as these men were of their general, in whom they saw the union of soldiership and sanctity carried to perfection, they would ill have borne that he should take the name, hateful to most of them, of King. Nor, although their victories seemed to them tokens that they were called to provide for the government of the land and the welfare of the godly, did they wish to rule England by the power of the sword. A temporary Council

of State, was appointed, and Cromwell, acting with the advice of a Council of his officers, summoned about 140 persons by name to serve as members of an assembly which is known as "*the Little Parliament*," or, as the Cavaliers nicknamed it, "Praise-God Barebone's Parliament," after the quaint name of one of its members. This assembly set to making legal and ecclesiastical reforms at such a rate that people got frightened; and in about five months' time the more moderate members thought it best to surrender their powers to Cromwell, who was thereupon appointed by his officers *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland* (December 16, 1653). There was to be an elected Parliament, consisting of one House only; all who had aided or abetted war against Parliament were disqualified temporarily from electing or being elected.

7. **The Protectorate. Oliver Cromwell, 1653-1658.**—With few friends except among the soldiers, *Oliver*—for, king-like, he styled himself by his Christian name—had for enemies, not only the Royalists, but also the Republicans, who looked upon him as the destroyer of the Commonwealth. In the beginning of 1655, a Republican plot and a Royalist insurrection were alike crushed, the Republicans being leniently treated, but not so the Cavaliers, some of whom were put to death, and others sold for slaves in the West Indies. Many other schemes were formed for the Protector's overthrow, and even for his assassination; but he kept himself well informed of all that was going on, and his rule was too strong and vigilant to be shaken off. For about a year after the revolt of 1655, the country was ruled by Major-Generals, wielding well-nigh absolute power; and to defray the expenses of this military government a tenth of income was arbitrarily wrung from the luckless Royalists. The Protector's first Parliament, which met in 1654, questioned his authority, and was dissolved by him in

anger. The next Parliament, which met in 1656, proposed that he should take the title of King; but a number of the officers of the army, and of those who favoured a Republic, opposed so strongly that he thought it better to refuse. Almost all the old forms of the constitution were however restored under new names. The Protector was enthroned with all but kingly pomp in Westminster Hall, and there were again to be two Houses of Parliament. The "Other House," as the Commons called it, was to be a House of Lords, but it proved a failure. A few of the old nobles were summoned, but almost all kept aloof; the Protector's two sons, members of his Council, military officers, lawyers, and others, mostly taken from the House of Commons, made up the rest. The Commons raised such difficulties about giving them the title of Lords, that Cromwell dissolved the Parliament, February 4, 1658. As Scotland, where the English rule was maintained by Monk and his army, and Ireland were now united with the English Commonwealth, representatives for those countries sat in the Parliaments of the Protectorate.

8. **Foreign Affairs.**—Whatever might be thought of the Protector's home rule, the success of his foreign policy dazzled even his opponents. Under him England became one of the most formidable powers in Europe; and France, Spain, and the United Provinces alike courted his friendship. Blake enforced from the Grand Duke of Tuscany reparation for damage to English commerce, and burned the Moorish pirate-vessels in the Bay of Tunis. An attack in 1655 upon the West Indian possessions of Spain proved an exception to the general success of Cromwell's schemes, as the expedition failed of its main object, San Domingo, and though it took the island of *Jamaica*, this was at first regarded as a worthless acquisition. But at sea the English held their own; and in 1656 the Londoners were gladdened by the sight of a train

of thirty-eight waggons conveying to the Tower the silver taken from a Spanish fleet. In the next year the daring Blake fought his last fight, attacking and burning, under a tremendous fire from the batteries on shore, the Spanish treasure-ships in the harbour of *Santa Cruz*, in Teneriffe. Blake did not live to receive the praise of his countrymen; he died within sight of Plymouth, August 17, 1657. Cromwell, taking Queen Elizabeth as his model, aspired to be the protector of the Reformed faith throughout Europe; and by means of his influence with the French government he was able to check the Duke of Savoy's persecution of the *Vaudois*, the Protestants of Piedmont. In the last year of his rule he gave the country a compensation for the still regretted Calais. An English force was sent to join the French in war against the Spaniards, and shared in the *Battle of the Dunes* in 1658, the result of which was the surrender of the town of *Dunkirk*, which England retained as the price of its assistance.

9. **Death of the Protector.**—Oliver, who was in ill-health, did not long survive the death of his favourite daughter, Elizabeth Claypole. He died at the age of fifty-nine, on his "Fortunate Day," the anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester, Sept. 3, 1658. He left two sons, *Richard* and *Henry*, the elder of whom was proclaimed Protector, his father, on his deathbed, having been understood to name him for his successor. The character of Oliver Cromwell is still a subject of dispute. Royalists, Presbyterians, and Republicans joined in denouncing him as a hypocrite who from first to last had only aimed at power for himself; yet there are grounds for considering him a sincere enthusiast. His genius cannot be doubted. For the first forty years of his life he never saw war, yet he proved a great general; bred in a private station, he became a great prince, even his enemies admitting that he bore himself with dignity. His power and wisdom extorted

an unwilling admiration, and in after days, when a foreign fleet insulted our shores, men looked back with something of regret to the mighty Oliver, who "made all the neighbour princes fear him."

10. **Religious Affairs.** — Cromwell's general policy was one of toleration in religious matters. Church livings were held both by Presbyterian and Independent ministers, subject to the approval of a Board appointed by the Protector. Freedom was allowed to all the sects which had sprung out of Puritanism, so long as they did not utter opinions dangerous to his government; for the fiercest Republicans were to be found among some of the "sectaries" —Anabaptists, Levellers, "Fifth-Monarchy men." The last-named believed themselves called to prepare the way for the reign on earth of Christ's saints. Having read of the "Four great Monarchies," Assyrian, Persian, Greek, and Roman, they reckoned their expected kingdom as the "*Fifth Monarchy*." Not long before the Protectorate, there arose the sect of the *Quakers*, as the world in general called them, or *Friends*, as they called themselves, founded by *George Fox*, son of a weaver. They were at first looked on with great dislike, and were much harassed, though the Protector himself treated Fox kindly. A few Jews were allowed to settle in the country, for the first time since their expulsion by Edward I. Oliver's toleration however did not extend to the Roman Catholics, and hardly to the Episcopalians, who were, as a matter of course, Royalists. After the revolt of 1655, he forbade the use of the Common Prayer-book, and the Episcopalian clergy were debarred from preaching or teaching. But these orders were not strictly carried out, and zealous congregations of the "Silenced Church" still met in private.

11. **The Protectorate. Richard Cromwell, 1658-1659.**—Great was the vexation of the Royalists on

finding that *Richard Cromwell* took his place as quietly as any rightful King. Gentle, docile, and of ordinary abilities, the young man had made no enemies; but the army scorned the rule of one who had never distinguished himself in war. After eight months, the malcontent officers recalled the "Rump" to power, and Richard, without a struggle, gave up his office, and retired into private life, whither he was followed by his brother Henry, who, during the Protectorate, had governed Ireland with ability.

12. **General Monk.**—The Rump was no sooner restored than its quarrel with the army began again; and in a few months the doors of the House were closed by *General John Lambert*, who thought himself a second Oliver Cromwell. But Monk, the commander of the English army in Scotland, refusing to acknowledge the government set up by the officers in London, marched with his forces towards England, and fixed his head-quarters at *Coldstream* on the Tweed. Hence his men were called "Coldstreamers," a name of which the memory is still preserved in that of the Coldstream Guards. Everywhere the dislike of military government was breaking out; people refused to pay taxes; the London apprentices were clamouring for a freely elected Parliament; the fleet advanced up the Thames, and declared itself against the rule of the army. The soldiers themselves, dissatisfied with their officers, restored the Rump, the only body in the country which had any show of legal authority. Fairfax, co-operating with Monk, mustered his friends and occupied York; while Lambert, who had marched to the North to stop Monk, was forsaken by his forces. Monk, the ruler of the hour, entered London, Feb. 3, 1660. Cold and silent, he for some days let not a word fall that could betray his real intentions, but at last he declared for a free Parliament—an announcement which was received with every mark of joy,

amidst the ringing of bells and the blaze of bonfires. The Presbyterian members who had been "purged" out by Pride, again took their seats, and Parliament, after issuing writs for a general election, decreed its own dissolution, March 16. Thus ended that famous "Long Parliament" which, twice expelled and twice restored, had existed for twenty years.

13. **The Restoration.**—The new Parliament, or rather *Convention*, for, not having been summoned by the King, it was not in law a Parliament, met April 25, the Peers now returning to their House. Monk meanwhile had been in secret communication with the exiled Charles, who issued to his "loving subjects" a Declaration, dated from *Breda*, wherein he promised pardon for past offences to all, "excepting only such persons as shall hereafter be excepted by Parliament," and also "a liberty to tender consciences." On the 8th May, seven days after this Declaration was received, *Charles II.* was proclaimed King, and the fleet having been sent to convoy him from Holland to Dover, he made his entry into London, May 29, in the midst of almost universal rejoicing; the roads were strewed with flowers, the streets hung with tapestry, the fountains ran with wine. On his way he passed the Commonwealth army, drawn up on Blackheath to give a reluctant welcome to the King whom they abhorred. Thus fell the Puritans, a class who rendered great political service to their country, and who are to be respected for their conscientious devotion to what seemed to them to be right. But they committed the error of trying to make all men religious after their own pattern. The Long Parliament put down public amusements, forbade the keeping of Christmas and other ancient festivals, and assigned punishments of unprecedented severity to breaches of private morality. Religion, or the appearance of it, was made a necessary qualification for office; and the result was that the name of Puritan became synonymous with that

of hypocrite, and the unnatural restraint of the Commonwealth was succeeded at the Restoration by an outbreak of profligacy.

CHAPTER XXXV.

CHARLES II.

Charles II. (1)—*the Convention Parliament* (2)—*the Nonconformists* (3)—*Ireland* (4)—*the King's marriage; Tangier; Bombay; sale of Dunkirk* (5)—*the Plague Year* (6)—*the Great Fire* (7)—*the Dutch War* (8)—*fall of Clarendon; the Triple Alliance; Treaty of Dover; the Cabal* (9)—*the Popish Plot* (10)—*the Habeas Corpus Act* (11)—*Whig and Tory; the Dukes of York and of Monmouth; the Whig Plots; death of Charles* (12).

1. House of Stuart. Charles II., 1660-1685.—*Charles II.* began his reign with everything in his favour No measure was ever more acceptable to the nation than was the Restoration; no conditions were made with him, no new restrictions laid upon him; the year of his return was styled, not the *first*, but the *twelfth*, of his reign, which was thus reckoned to have begun from the time of his father's death. Unfortunately Charles had few qualities which merited the love bestowed upon him. He had talents, easy good-temper, and the manners of an accomplished gentleman, but neither heart nor principles. So far as he had any religion, he was secretly a Roman Catholic; as a ruler, his inclination was towards a despotic monarchy; but he was not the man to risk his crown in grasping at more power—as he himself said, he was "resolved to go abroad no more;"—and his main object in life was to be amused and to avoid trouble.

2. The Convention Parliament.—The *Convention Parliament*—for by its first statute it declared

itself to be a Parliament—passed an *Act of Indemnity* by which the promised general pardon was granted; those who had been actually concerned in the death of Charles I. were excepted from its benefits. Of these "*regicides*" thirteen suffered death, and others were left in prison for life. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were, on the next anniversary of the late King's death, dragged out of their tombs at Westminster, and hanged on the gallows at Tyburn. The Act of Indemnity was far from pleasing the distressed Cavaliers, who found that it barred them from legal remedy for their losses during the late troubles, and their feelings were consequently very bitter. A statute was passed abolishing the now useless and oppressive tenures by knight-service, with all their attendant grievances. By the same Act the King also gave up the prerogative of *purveyance* and *pre-emption*. In compensation, he received an excise upon beer and other liquors, a tax first introduced by the Long Parliament. The army was disbanded as soon as possible. If Parliament had had its wish, there would have been no military force except the militia; but a wild rising of a handful of Fifth-Monarchy men in London gave Charles an excuse for keeping up a body of guards, retaining among them Monk's "Coldstreamers" and another old regiment. He contrived to spare enough from his revenue to maintain and gradually to increase these forces, and thus, though without the sanction of law, he became master of a small standing army.

3. **The Nonconformists or Dissenters.**—In the new Parliament, which met in May, 1661, the Cavalier party had completely the upper hand. The *Corporation Act* was passed, by which every officer of a corporation was required to communicate according to the rites of the Church of England, and to swear to his belief that taking arms against the King was in all cases unlawful. The Bishops, who had already returned

to their sees, were now restored to their seats in the House of Lords; and the Liturgy was revived with some alterations. Charles had held out hopes of some changes in the episcopal system which would satisfy the moderate Presbyterians; but the Parliament would make no concessions. A stringent *Act of Uniformity*, requiring all persons holding ecclesiastical preferment to declare their assent to everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer, drove about two thousand ministers from their benefices, as the Royalist incumbents had been turned out before them. This was followed at intervals by harsh Acts against the Nonconformists and their religious meetings. It was about this time that the names of Puritan and Nonconformist began to be replaced by that of *Dissenter*, the change of name marking a change of feeling. The Nonconformist under Charles I. had striven to fashion the Church according to his own ideas; under Charles II. he made up his mind to stand outside, only asking for liberty to "dissent" from the Church. Charles, for the sake of the Roman Catholics, was not inclined to be hard upon dissent; but his motive was suspected. In 1672 he put out a *Declaration of Indulgence*, by which Protestant Dissenters were to be allowed to worship in places licensed for the purpose, and Roman Catholics in private houses. But Parliament denying his power thus to dispense with penal statutes "in matters ecclesiastical," he withdrew his Declaration. So far from being able to carry out his wishes, he had to give his assent to the *Test Act* (1673), which, though it also shut out the Protestant Nonconformists from office, was aimed especially at the Roman Catholics. Under this Act all persons holding civil or military office were required to take the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, to subscribe a declaration against *transubstantiation* (the distinguishing doctrine of the Church of Rome upon the Eucharist), and to communicate according to

the Anglican rites. Rather than comply with these requirements, the King's brother James, Duke of York, resigned his place of Lord High Admiral—a step by which he practically avowed himself to be, as had long been suspected, a Roman Catholic.

4. **Ireland.**—In the other parts of the British Isles the royal authority was re-established without difficulty. Scotland became again a separate kingdom; in Ireland episcopacy was restored, and a Parliament proceeded to settle the claims of the dispossessed Royalists and Roman Catholics on the one side, and the adventurers and soldiers, Cromwell's colonists, on the other. After long wrangling, the "Cromwellians," as they were called, gave up a third of their gains; but numbers of Irish claimants who protested, truly or untruly, that they had had no share in the rebellion of 1641 obtained neither restitution nor compensation, and raised bitter complaints.

5. **Tangier, Bombay, and Dunkirk.**—In 1662 Charles married the *Infanta of Portugal*, *Katharine of Braganza*, receiving as part of her dowry the fortress of *Tangier* in Africa and the island of *Bombay* in India. Tangier was abandoned before the end of the reign as worthless; Bombay after a short time was made over to the East India Company. In the same year, 1662, *Dunkirk* was sold to *Louis XIV.*, King of France, a transaction which roused general indignation, the more so, as it was believed that the motive was the gaining funds to support a profligate court.

6. **The Plague Year.**—In 1665, during an unusually hot and dry summer, the Plague broke out in London with a fury such as had not been known for three centuries. The Court and most of the rich fled from the stricken city; the stout-hearted Monk, whose services in the Restoration had gained him the title of *Duke of Albemarle*, remained at Whitehall as the chief representative of government, although, as he said, he should have thought himself much safer in action

against the Dutch. The shops were shut up, the grass grew in the streets; rows of houses stood empty, or marked on their doors with a red cross and the words "Lord have mercy on us,"—the sign that the pestilence was within. By winter-time the worst was over; but in these six months it is said that more than 100,000 people perished.

7. **The Great Fire of London.**—Hardly had London recovered from the scourge of plague when another evil befell it. On the 2nd September, 1666—the *Annus Mirabilis*, or "*Year of Wonders*," as the poet Dryden named it—an accidental fire broke out in Pudding Lane, near Fish Street. The neighbouring houses, being of wood, quickly caught the flames, which, driven by an east wind, soon wrapped London in a blaze which made the night as light as day for ten miles round. At this fearful time, Charles, usually so careless and indifferent, displayed an unexpected energy, superintending, together with the Duke of York, the pulling down of houses, for the purpose of checking the flames. At last, wide gaps having been made in the streets by blowing up the buildings with gunpowder, and the wind abating, the fire was stayed, though not until after it had burned for three days, and laid London in ashes from the Tower to the Temple and Smithfield. The column known as "*the Monument*" marks the spot near which the fire began. Old St. Paul's being among the buildings which perished, it was replaced by the present church, the work of the great architect *Sir Christopher Wren.*

8. **The Dutch War.**—These calamitous years were further marked by a naval war, arising mainly out of commercial rivalry, with the United Provinces, or, as they were usually called, from the name of the leading province among them, *Holland.* One battle in the Downs, fought in June, 1666, was contested for four days; the Dutch were commanded by De Ruyter,

the English by Albemarle and Prince Rupert. Louis XIV. gave some help to the Dutch; but after a while he entered into secret negotiations with Charles, and did no more for his allies. The English had some successes; but the supplies voted for the war being squandered by the Court or embezzled by the officials, the vessels were laid up unrepaired, and the sailors left unpaid till they mutinied. In 1667 a Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway, burned the English vessels at Chatham, and blockaded the river Thames. "This comes of your not paying our husbands," cried the sailors' wives in the streets of Wapping; and indeed not the least part of the disgrace was that English sailors were serving on board the Dutch ships, and were heard calling out "We did heretofore fight for tickets; now we fight for dollars!" John Evelyn, a gentleman of the time, whose diary has come down to us, has recorded how he looked upon the Dutch fleet lying within the mouth of the Thames,—"a dreadful spectacle as ever Englishmen saw, and a dishonour never to be wiped off!" Peace was made soon afterwards.

9. **Treaty of Dover.**—The anger of the nation was somewhat appeased by the dismissal of the Lord Chancellor, Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, hitherto the King's chief adviser, who was disliked, though for different reasons, both by courtiers and people. Clarendon was an old-fashioned statesman, who wished to see the government conducted as in the days of Elizabeth, and was indignant when the Commons presumed to inquire how the money they had voted for the war had been spent; but at the same time he frowned upon the vices and follies of the King and the Court. Being impeached by the Commons, Clarendon fled the country, and died in exile. The King's advisers now took the popular step of forming the *Triple Alliance* between England, Holland, and Sweden, in order to check Louis XIV. in his career

of conquest. But Charles had other schemes at heart, and ere long he sold himself to France by the secret *Treaty of Dover*, May 22, 1670. Under this he engaged to declare himself, as soon as might be prudent, a Roman Catholic, to join in a war against Holland, and otherwise to serve the French designs; while Louis engaged to pay him a large subsidy, a yearly pension during the war, and to aid him with an army if any insurrection should break out in England. The then leading ministers of the Crown are known as the "*Cabal*"—a term used in much the same sense as *Cabinet*, but applied more particularly to them in consequence of its comprising the initials of their names or titles, *Clifford*, Lord *Arlington*, the Duke of *Buckingham*, Lord *Ashley* (afterwards *Earl of Shaftesbury*), and the Duke of *Lauderdale*. Of these, only Clifford and Arlington, whose leanings were towards the Church of Rome, were entrusted with the secret of the King's engagement to declare himself a Roman Catholic. For some time before this reign that which we call the *cabinet*—consisting of a small number of persons selected by the sovereign, whose existence as a body is still unrecognized by law—had begun to draw to itself the functions originally belonging to the whole Council. The war with Holland was declared in 1672, the necessary funds being raised by "shutting the Exchequer," that is, by suspending the payments due to the goldsmiths and bankers who had advanced money to the government. Peace was made in two years, by which time the "Cabal" had broken up. Clifford, who had recently become a Roman Catholic, had preferred resigning his office of Lord Treasurer to taking the test imposed by the Act of 1673. Shaftesbury, having probably learned the King's secret engagement as to his religion, had exerted all his influence to put an end to the French alliance and the Dutch war, and had in consequence been dismissed from his office of Lord

Chancellor. He now became the leader of the "*Country Party*," as those opposed to the Court were called.

10. **The Popish Plot.**—In 1678, the nation, already suspicious of the real plot of Charles and Louis against its religion and liberty, was driven wild by the alleged discovery of a "*Popish Plot*" for the assassination of the King and the massacre of all Protestants. *Titus Oates*, a man of infamous character, was the chief witness to it; and by him and by others who made a profit of perjury the lives of many innocent Roman Catholics were sworn away. Under the influence of the popular feeling, an Act was passed which shut out Roman Catholics (the Duke of York excepted) from either House of Parliament and from the royal presence. From the House of Commons indeed they had long been excluded by the oath of supremacy exacted from the members; but it was not until the passing of the Act of 1678 that the Roman Catholic peers ceased to take their seats. Both Lords and Commons were now required, not only to take the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, but also to subscribe a declaration against transubstantiation and the worship of the Church of Rome.

11. **Habeas Corpus Act.**—The Parliament, which had been in existence ever since 1661, was at last dissolved in 1679; and to its shortlived successor, which met and was dissolved within the year, belongs the honour of having passed the famous *Habeas Corpus Act*. The Great Charter had established the immunity of every freeman from arbitrary imprisonment; but in practice various ways were found of violating this right. The object of this new Act was effectually to provide that no man should be long detained in prison on a criminal charge without either the legality of his imprisonment being proved in open court, or his being brought to trial. The name comes from that of the writ of *Habeas Corpus*, to which

recourse could always be had on behalf of persons illegally imprisoned. The writ was addressed to the person by whom any one was detained, commanding him to produce his prisoner in court and show the cause of the imprisonment. The judges often found pretexts for refusing to award the writ, and the gaolers for delaying to obey it. In times of public danger, the operation of this statute is sometimes suspended by Acts giving the government power for a limited period to imprison suspected persons without bringing them to trial.

12. **Whig and Tory.**—About this time the party names of *Whig* and *Tory* came into use. *Whig* was a nickname given to the insurgent Covenanters of Scotland, and from them it was transferred to those of the Country Party who were bent on shutting out the Duke of York from the throne on account of his religion. Those who were against this scheme were called *Tories*, a name originally given to the Roman Catholic outlaws who haunted the bogs of Ireland. The King had no legitimate children; but the eldest of his illegitimate sons, *James, Duke of Monmouth*, was put forward by Shaftesbury and other Whigs as a claimant. Monmouth, "the Protestant Duke," was the darling of the common people, who believed him to be of lawful birth, and who were fascinated by his grace and winning manners. In three Parliaments the Whigs pursued their scheme of an "*Exclusion Bill*" against the Duke of York. The last of these met in 1681 at the loyal and Tory city of Oxford, for Charles feared that the House of Commons, if assembled in its wonted place, might, in imitation of the Long Parliament, declare itself permanent, and call on the Londoners to support it. As it was, the Whig members came escorted by mounted tenants and serving-men, as well armed as the royal Guards. The Commons still insisting on the Exclusion Bill, the King dissolved the Parliament after seven days; and irritated by

these persistent attempts to exclude his brother from the succession, for the remaining four years of his reign he ruled without a Parliament. Money sufficient for carrying on the government was obtained from Louis of France. As the borough corporations, which then returned a majority of the representatives of the Commons, were the strongholds of the Whigs, steps were taken to destroy their independence. On slight pretext, the Court of King's Bench pronounced that the City of London had forfeited its charter, and new regulations were made which placed it entirely under the power of the Crown—no mayor, sheriff, or recorder was to be admitted without the King's approval. Similar measures were taken with other Whig towns, many of which thought it best to surrender their liberties quietly—charters went down, it was said, "like the walls of Jericho." Many of the Whigs began to plan insurrections, or at least to take counsel how to overthrow the Tories; while a few of the most desperate formed the "*Rye-House Plot*" for waylaying and assassinating the King and his brother. The Rye-House was a farm belonging to one of the conspirators, situated on the road by which the King would return from Newmarket. These projects being betrayed, several persons suffered death; amongst them, the upright and patriotic *William, Lord Russell*, and *Algernon Sydney*, a man of known Republican opinions, who had fought for the Parliament at Marston Moor. Both Russell and Sydney are deemed to have been wrongfully convicted. Russell, though saying that "he thought he had met with hard measure," accepted his fate with calmness. "The bitterness of death is past," he said, after he had bidden a last farewell to his dearly loved wife. Sydney would not address the people from the scaffold, saying that "he had made his peace with Heaven, and had nothing to say to men." He left however a paper which, while it set forth the injustice of his condemnation, expressed his

thankfulness that he was to die "for that old cause in which I was from my youth engaged." Monmouth, who had been concerned in the Whig plots, went abroad; and his rival the Duke of York after a while resumed his office of Lord High Admiral and his seat at the Council, the King dispensing, in his favour, with the provisions of the Test Act. While wavering as to his future policy, Charles was seized with a fit, and after lingering a few days, died on the 6th February, 1685. On his deathbed, after the Bishops had vainly pressed him to take the Sacrament, his brother secretly brought to him a monk, from whose hands he received the last rites of the Church of Rome. The people mourned him with genuine sorrow, for with all his faults he had never lost his personal popularity; while his brother's accession to power was dreaded.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

JAMES II.

James II. (1)—*the Western Rebellion; beheading of Monmouth; the Bloody Assizes* (2)—*misgovernment of James; Declaration of Indulgence* (3)—*trial of the Seven Bishops* (4)—*birth of the Pretender* (5)—*invitation to the Prince of Orange* (6)—*landing of the Prince; flight of the Queen and King* (7)—*return and second flight of James; the Declaration of Right; the Crown accepted by the Prince and Princess of Orange* (8)—*the Huguenots* (9)—*literature* (10)—*science* (11)—*architecture* (12).

1. **James II., 1685-1688.**—*James, Duke of York*, came to the throne under the disadvantage of holding a faith abhorred by the majority of his subjects; but as he was thought to be a man of his word, people relied on the assurance which he gave to the Privy Council

that he would support the Church of England and respect the laws. Yet he soon tried the Protestant loyalty by going in royal state to mass in Whitehall —a step which raised the hopes of the Roman Catholics as much as it troubled their opponents. Unwilling to be wholly dependent upon Parliament, James, though not without reluctance, accepted money from Louis of France. It was nevertheless necessary to summon a Parliament; but every art was employed to influence and control the elections, and with such success that James said there were only some forty members that were not such as he wished for.

2. **The Western Rebellion.**—Four months after the accession of James, the Duke of Monmouth, instigated and accompanied by a knot of Whigs who, having been implicated in the Plot of 1683, had found shelter in the Low Countries, landed with about eighty followers at Lyme in Dorsetshire, and called the people to arms. At Taunton, a thriving clothier-town of Puritan opinions, he caused himself to be proclaimed King, June 20, 1685. The Western peasantry and townsfolk flocked to his standard; but the gentry held aloof, and, contrary to his hopes, none of the Whig nobles joined him. On the 6th July, he was defeated in an attempt to surprise the royal army on *Sedgemoor*. His cavalry, untrained men on half-broken horses, gave way under fire, but his infantry, composed of peasants and artisans, many armed only with scythes, made a gallant stand. The Mendip miners in particular fought desperately, though deserted by Monmouth, who, seeing that the day was lost, fled away. Two days later, worn out with hunger and fatigue, he was captured whilst hiding in a ditch. Shortly after his landing, he had been attainted of treason by Act of Parliament; and it was in vain that he fell at the King's feet and begged for life. He was beheaded on the 15th July, and his followers were treated with fearful severity. Several were summarily

hanged by the royal general Louis Duras, a Frenchman who had been made Earl of Feversham, and by Colonel Percy Kirke, whom Feversham left in command at Bridgewater. Kirke, a hard-hearted and lawless man, had been commandant at Tangier, where he had ruled as a petty tyrant; and his soldiers were worthy of their leader. On their flag they bore the emblem of the Paschal Lamb, whence, with an ironical allusion to their ferocity, the name of "Kirke's Lambs" was fixed upon them. The *Chief Justice Jeffreys*, notorious for his brutal demeanour on the judgment-seat, and for the delight he seemed to take in passing sentence, came down to hold the "*Bloody Assizes*," as they were named. The first victim was the widow of one of Cromwell's lords, *Alice Lisle*, who had given shelter to two fugitive rebels. She was beheaded at Winchester, intercession for her life having in vain been made with the King. The result of the Bloody Assizes was that three hundred and twenty persons suffered death, and more than double that number were sold for a term of slavery in the West Indies; many others were scourged or fined. The services of Jeffreys, who boasted that he had hanged more traitors than all his predecessors since the Conquest, and who at the same time made a fortune by the sale of pardons, were rewarded with the Chancellorship. Favoured courtiers received batches of the rebels for sale, or were allowed to wring heavy sums from rich delinquents. Thus the Maids of Honour obtained a large sum as the price of the pardon of a band of schoolgirls who had presented a royal flag to Monmouth at Taunton.

3. **Government of James.**—The King, now at the height of power, set his heart upon obtaining a repeal of the Habeas Corpus Act, upon keeping up a large army, and above all, upon abolishing or dispensing with the laws which shut out Roman Catholics from office and Parliament. Finding that

his Parliament, though strongly Tory, would not sanction his keeping officers of his own religion in the army, he prorogued it; and disregarding the advice of the wiser among the Roman Catholics and of the Pope, *Innocent XI.*, who would have had him govern according to law, he gave himself up to the secret councils of a knot of violent men, headed by a Jesuit named *Edward Petre*. Those of his ministers and judges who stood in the way of his schemes were dismissed, favour being shown to none except those who would lend themselves to his purposes; and from that, even loyal Tories shrank. Four judges had to be replaced by more subservient men before the King could obtain a decision that he might lawfully dispense with penal statutes in particular cases. After this, he could employ a Roman Catholic who had not taken the test imposed by law; and he at once used his power to make Roman Catholics privy councillors, and even to allow clergymen who had gone over to the Church of Rome to keep the benefices which had been bestowed on them when they were Protestants. Ireland was placed under the rule of a Roman Catholic descendant of an old Norman-Irish family, *Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel*, who detested the Protestant settlers, and filled all offices with men of his own creed. Although two Acts of Parliament had abolished the High Commission Court of Elizabeth, and forbidden the erection of any similar tribunal, a new Ecclesiastical Commission, with Jeffreys at its head, was set up for the purpose of coercing the clergy. Its first act was to summon the Bishop of London, *Henry Compton*, who had given displeasure to the King, and to suspend him from his spiritual functions. A series of attacks were made upon the Church and the Universities, whose hitherto unshaken loyalty merited better treatment. One in particular which excited great indignation, was the ejection by the Ecclesiastical Commission of the Fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford for having

maintained a President legally elected by themselves against two unqualified persons recommended one after the other by the King. A Roman Catholic had already been made Dean of Christchurch, one of the highest offices in the University; and now Magdalen College was turned into a Roman Catholic seminary. Finding that the Tory gentry and the clergy, hitherto such staunch friends to the Crown, were all against him, James began to court the Protestant Dissenters; and in hopes of conciliating them, as well as of serving his own religion, he published, April 4th, 1687, a *Declaration of Indulgence*, suspending all penal laws against nonconformity, and dispensing with all religious tests. In judging of the King's conduct, it should be remembered that, whether the statutes he thus set aside were good or bad, it was the duty of an English King to govern according to the constitution, and that in issuing the Declaration of Indulgence James committed an unconstitutional act. From ancient times indeed the Crown had exercised some power of dispensing, in favour of particular persons, with penal statutes; and as long as this was only used in trifling matters, it excited no complaint. But it was a different matter when it was stretched to set aside at one stroke statutes which were held to be necessary safeguards of the English liberties. Moreover a Declaration of Indulgence by Charles II. had been formally pronounced illegal, so that there was now no doubt on the subject as far as laws relating to ecclesiastical matters were concerned. Three months later James dissolved the Parliament, which had never met since its prorogation in 1685, and set himself, by again re-modelling the borough corporations, by dismissing refractory Lords-Lieutenant, Deputy Lieutenants, and Justices, and by every other means in his power, to ensure the election of a more subservient one; but everywhere he found a resolute spirit of resistance.

4. **The Seven Bishops.**—In 1688 the King issued a second Declaration of Indulgence, which he ordered to be read at the time of divine service by the officiating ministers of all churches and chapels. A petition against this order was signed and presented by *William Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury*, and six Bishops of his Province. This the King received with great anger, telling the Bishops that their petition was "a standard of rebellion;" and being further incensed by the most part of the clergy disobeying his order to read the Declaration, he resolved to bring the petitioners before the Court of King's Bench on a charge of seditious libel. "The Seven Bishops" were committed to the Tower, amid marks of public sympathy and respect from all quarters. As the barge which conveyed them from Whitehall to prison passed down the Thames, one cry of "God bless your Lordships" rose from all the boats on the river. The very sentinels at the "Traitors' Gate," the water entrance of the Tower, asked their blessing. All Protestants, of whatever religious body, regarded them as the champions of Protestantism against Rome. The main point at issue in the Bishops' trial was, whether their petition was, as the Crown lawyers argued, "a false, malicious, and seditious libel;" and this involved inquiry into the King's right to dispense with statutes, and the subject's right to petition for redress of grievances. The trial, at which not one of the judges ventured to say that the Declaration of Indulgence was legal, ended with a verdict of "*Not Guilty;*" and at this result the national delight knew no bounds. Westminster Hall rang with cheers, which were echoed and re-echoed through the streets of London. James received the news at Hounslow, where his army was encamped. As he was setting out for London, hearing a great shout, he asked what it meant. "Nothing," was the answer "the soldiers are glad that the

Bishops are acquitted." "Do you call that nothing?" said James, who felt bitterly how complete his defeat had been.

5. **Birth of James Francis Stuart.**—During this exciting time *James Francis Edward*, son of King James and his second wife, *Mary of Modena*, was born, June 10—an event which, much as it elated the King's partisans, in reality hastened their downfall. By his first wife, *Anne Hyde*, daughter of Lord Clarendon, the King had two children, *Mary* and *Anne*, both Protestants, and married to Protestants, Mary to her cousin *William Henry*, *Prince of Orange Nassau* and *Stadholder of Holland*, Anne to *George*, *Prince of Denmark*. The nation had therefore hitherto endured James's misgovernment in the belief that the next reign would set things right. But the birth of this son changed the whole prospect; and in their vexation the people raised a cry that the infant Prince was no child of the King and Queen.

6. **Invitation to William.**—The leading malcontents now took a decisive step. On the day of the Bishops' acquittal, June 30, a secret invitation to the Prince of Orange to come over at the head of a sufficient force, with the assurance that the greatest part of the nation would support him, was despatched. This paper, signed in cipher by the seven chiefs of the conspiracy—the *Earls of Shrewsbury*, *Devonshire*, and *Danby*, *Lord Lumley*, *Henry Compton*, *Bishop of London*, *Edward Russell*, and *Henry Sydney*—was carried to Holland by *Admiral Herbert*, disguised as a common sailor. The seven who thus undertook to speak for their countrymen were men whose birth and position gave William some guaranty that he would be supported by the nobles and gentry. Devonshire was the head of the Whig nobles; Danby was an old Tory and a former minister of Charles II.; Shrewsbury, a convert from the Church of Rome, had recently been dismissed from the Lord-Lieutenancy of Staffordshire

for refusing to serve the King's ends. Bishop Compton, who likewise lay under the royal displeasure, belonged to a noble family which was noted for its loyalty in the Civil Wars; Lumley, another convert from Rome, had done good service in putting down Monmouth's insurrection. Russell, a naval officer, was cousin to the Lord Russell who had been beheaded in the last reign; Sydney was brother to Algernon Sydney. Unwitting of the perils thickening around him, James went on in his course. To ascertain the temper of the army, the regiment now called the 12th of the Line was drawn up in his presence, and told that all who would not subscribe an engagement to assist in carrying into effect his Majesty's intentions concerning the test must quit the service. To the King's amazement, the soldiers, with but few exceptions, at once laid down their pikes and muskets. So much had the English army caught the spirit of resistance, that he sent over for Irish troops of his own creed, raised and trained by Tyrconnel. In vain did Louis of France warn James of his danger; not till the Prince of Orange and his armament were ready to sail did the King open his eyes. Then he attempted to conciliate his subjects by abolishing the Ecclesiastical Commission, restoring the charter of the City of London and the forfeited franchises of the municipal corporations, redressing the wrongs of Magdalen College, and replacing the magistrates and Deputy Lieutenants who had been dismissed for refusing to support his policy; but it was too late.

7. **Landing of William.**—William put forth a Declaration stating that he was coming to protect the liberties of England, and to secure the calling of a free Parliament, which should redress grievances and inquire into the birth of the Prince of Wales. On the 5th of November, 1688, being well served by the wind, which prevented the King's fleet from pursuing

him, he landed with his army at *Torbay*, where he was received with good will by the common people, though it was some days before any men of note joined him. Gradually adherents of rank came in; the North was raised in his cause by Lord Delamer and the Earls of Devonshire and Danby. Delamer put himself at the head of his tenants in Cheshire; while Danby, with a hundred horsemen, seized upon York, gaining over the militia there to the Prince's side; and the Earl of Devonshire, mustering his friends and dependents, marched to Nottingham, where many other peers joined him. Officers of the royal army, chief among them *Lord Churchill*, afterwards the great Duke of Marlborough, went over to the Prince; while James, unable to trust his own soldiers, retreated before the invader. The King's distress was aggravated by finding that his daughter Anne had, together with her favourite, Lady Churchill, fled to the northern insurgents. "God help me!" he exclaimed, "my own children have forsaken me." Rather than undo all that he had done for the Roman Catholics, and break with France, he planned the escape of his family and himself. On a stormy night the Queen, escorted by a Frenchman, the Count of Lauzun, stole out of Whitehall with her infant child, and fled to France. At three o'clock in the morning of the 11th December the King set out to follow her. Whilst crossing the Thames in a wherry, he flung the Great Seal into the stream, whence it was accidentally fished up after many months. Without affixing the Great Seal, no writ for summoning a Parliament could be issued, no commissions for holding the assizes completed; so that by carrying it off, James meant to put a stop to the regular course of government.

8. **The Interregnum.**—As there was now no government, such Lords as were at hand, with Archbishop Sancroft at their head, took upon themselves a

temporary authority, and sent to the Prince of Orange, requesting his presence in London. The City was in a state of utter disorder, but the riotous mob showed no disposition towards bloodshed, except in one case. The Lord Chancellor Jeffreys, disguised as a collier sailor, being discovered in an alehouse at Wapping, was in peril of his life. At his own entreaty, the Lords sent him to the Tower, where he died in 1689, his end being hastened by drinking. Meanwhile the King had not succeeded in leaving the country, and having been stopped near Sheerness by some rough fishermen, who took him for a fugitive Jesuit, he returned to London. The Tories, who had considered themselves freed from their allegiance by his desertion, felt that the case was altered when he was still in his kingdom. To frighten him to a second escape was therefore the policy of William, who, sending his troops to take possession of Whitehall, signified his desire that James should withdraw. The fallen King thereupon retired, escorted by Dutch soldiers, to Rochester, and being there guarded with intentional negligence, he soon carried out his enemies' wishes by taking flight, December 23, to France, where he was received with generous kindness by Louis XIV. At the invitation of an assembly of Peers and commoners, the Prince of Orange took on himself the government, and summoned a Convention of the Estates of the Realm, which met Jan. 22, 1689. After long discussion, this Convention resolved, "that it hath been found by experience to be inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant Kingdom to be governed by a Popish Prince," and that King James II., "having endeavoured to subvert the constitution," "having violated the fundamental laws," and "having withdrawn himself out of this Kingdom," had "abdicated the government," and that the throne was "thereby become vacant." That there might never again be any room for dispute between the sovereign and the nation, a *Declaration*

of Right was drawn up, which asserted the ancient rights and liberties of England; and, in "entire confidence" that these would be preserved by William, the Lords and Commons offered the Crown to him and his wife. The offer, formally made on the 13th February, was accepted; and thus was completed the *English Revolution.* The sovereignty of *Ireland* went with that of England; and a few months later the Crown of *Scotland* was bestowed upon William and Mary by the Estates of that country. William had plainly declared that he would accept no lower position than that of King; and though Mary, as being the heiress by birthright, was made in form joint sovereign with her husband, the administration of government was placed in his hands alone.

9. **The Huguenots.**—In 1685 Louis XIV. revoked the *Edict of Nantes*, under which the *Huguenots*, as the French Protestants were called, had hitherto enjoyed a certain amount of religious liberty. In consequence of this revocation and the accompanying persecutions, thousands of brave, intelligent, and industrious men fled from his dominions, carrying their valour and their skill to other lands. Many of these refugees settled in Spitalfields, London, and there introduced the manufacture of silk. Others, taking military service with the Prince of Orange, turned their swords against their former King. Many families in England trace their descent to these Huguenot refugees. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes made a great impression in England, and in fact went a long way towards stirring up the Parliament to withstand James. What Louis had done, men thought James would do, if he was once allowed to get the chance.

10. **Literature.**—Among the divines of the Stuart period, *Jeremy Taylor*, who died in 1667, is celebrated for his devotional works and for his sermons, the finest that had yet been heard in the English Church.

Richard Baxter, notable as the author of the *Saints' Everlasting Rest*, was one of the ministers driven out by the Act of Uniformity of 1662, and bore his share of the harsh treatment to which Nonconformists were exposed. *Lord Clarendon*, noted as the minister of Charles II., is also famous as the historian of the stirring times through which he had lived. His *History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England*, despite its inaccuracies and Royalist prejudices, remains one of the great works of our literature. *Izaak Walton*, "the Father of Angling," as he is called, published in 1653 *The Complete Angler*, which is more than a mere treatise upon fishing. Its quaint grace, and its feeling for rural scenes, render it interesting even to those who care nothing for its subject. Under Charles I., there grew up a school of Royalist writers of love and war songs, some of which may still be found in most collections of poetry. Among poets of higher pretensions was *Abraham Cowley*, who in his own day was accounted unrivalled, though he is now little read. Another noted poet was *Edmund Waller*, who employed his talents to praise Cromwell during the Protectorate, and Charles II. at the Restoration. *Samuel Butler* was the author of *Hudibras*, a burlesque poem against the Puritans, the hero, from whom it has its name, being a half-crazy Presbyterian justice, who undertakes the reform of abuses. The Commonwealth party, though not in general favoured by the wits and versifiers, could claim for its own one of the greatest poets of England, *John Milton*, who wrote in defence of the execution of Charles I., and held the post of Latin Secretary to the Commonwealth's Council of State. His chief work, *Paradise Lost*, was published in 1667. Of his beautiful minor poems many were written before the Civil Wars began. The most notable of his prose writings is the *Areopagitica*, an eloquent plea "for the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing." This was

called forth by an order of the Long Parliament in 1643 that no book, pamphlet, or paper, should be printed unless it was approved and licensed by some person appointed by either of the two Houses. In this they only followed the example set them by the Star Chamber, and Milton's arguments produced no alteration of the system. Milton died in 1674, having been blind for more than twenty years. *John Bunyan*, the greatest of allegorical writers, born in 1628 near Bedford, was brought up to the trade of a tinker, and served for a short time as a soldier during the Civil War. Joining himself to the Baptists, he became noted as a preacher; and it was after the Restoration, while lying in Bedford gaol for the offence of upholding "unlawful meetings and conventicles," that he composed the first part of the *Pilgrim's Progress*. This religious allegory became the delight of pious people among the poor, although it was more than a century before the genius of its author was acknowledged by literary critics. Many of its scenes and characters give a good idea of the age to which it belongs. Bunyan's devout warriors show us what the pick of the Puritan soldiery were like; and his trial of Faithful before Lord Hategood is a picture, by no means over-coloured, of the sort of trial which a Nonconformist or a political offender often received. The reaction against the Puritan over-strictness showed itself strongly in the polite literature of the time of Charles II., above all in the comic dramas, which were a disgrace to the age—not that they lacked wit, humour, or dramatic skill, but because they were morally bad to a degree which testifies to the debased state of the society which delighted in them. Writing for the stage being then the most profitable employment for an author, *John Dryden*, chief of the poets of the Restoration school, spent his best years upon dramatic composition, for which his talents were unsuited. As a lyric poet, and especially as a satirist,

he stands high, one of his most famous works being the satiric poem of *Absalom and Achitophel*, under which names, the Duke of Monmouth and his ally the Earl of Shaftesbury are aimed at. The Whigs of the Revolution were fortunate in being able to show on their side some of the chief names of the age. To them belonged the philosopher *Isaac Newton*, and the great jurist and politician, *Lord Somers*, who was one of the counsel for the Seven Bishops, and chairman of the committee by which the Declaration of Right was drawn up. Of them also was *John Locke*, a friend and confidant of Lord Shaftesbury. Falling, on the discovery of the Whig plots in 1683, under suspicion, Locke withdrew to Holland, and was punished by a royal order arbitrarily removing him from his studentship at Christ Church, Oxford. A staunch supporter of civil and religious liberty, he wrote in defence of toleration; while his fame as a philosopher was established by the publication in 1690 of his *Essay concerning Human Understanding*. In his two *Treatises of Government*, he put forward the Whig theory that when a ruler broke the law, he forfeited his claim to obedience. A less noted Whig writer was *Gilbert Burnet* (made after the Revolution Bishop of Salisbury), a clergyman of Scottish birth, author of the *History of the Reformation in England*, the first volume of which gained him the honour of a vote of thanks from Parliament, which was then excited by the Popish Plot. He left a *History of his Own Time*, which was published after his death in 1715.

11. **Science.**—Among the famous men who lived under the first Stuart Kings was the physician *William Harvey*, who made the discovery of the circulation of the blood. The Restoration period, however politically discreditable, was a time of great advances in science. The *Royal Society*, which numbered among its first members men illustrious in chemistry, in astronomy, in mathematics, in botany, and in

zoology, was established shortly after the Restoration. *John Flamsteed*, from whose time dates the beginning of modern astronomy, was the first Astronomer-Royal, the Observatory at Greenwich being founded by Charles II. for the benefit of navigation. The greatest name in science is that of *Isaac Newton*, famed for his wonderful discoveries in mathematics and natural philosophy. He was born in Lincolnshire in 1642, and died in 1727, in his eighty-fifth year. His chief work, the *Principia*, was published in 1687.

12. **Architecture.**—Under the Tudors Gothic architecture had begun to go down. Italian details became more and more mixed with it, and the style called *Elizabethan* was the result. The pure *Italian* style, in imitation of ancient Roman architecture, was brought into England early in the seventeenth century by *Inigo Jones*, and superseded Gothic, which was now little regarded or understood. *Sir Christopher Wren*, admirable in the style of his age, failed when he imitated Gothic, as the towers he added to Westminster Abbey still serve to show. His finest work is the cathedral church of St. Paul, which was completed in 1710. He died in 1723, at the age of ninety, and was buried in the crypt of his own great church, with this epitaph :—"*Si monumentum requiris, circumspice.*" ("If thou seekest his monument, look around.")

CHAPTER XXXVII.

WILLIAM AND MARY. WILLIAM III.

William and Mary; the Non-jurors (1)—*war in Ireland; siege of Londonderry; battle of the Boyne* (2)—*battle of La Hogue; Peace of Ryswick; the National Debt; the re-coinage; Assassination Plot; the Bank of England* (3)—*death of Queen Mary* (4)—*opposition to William; the Spanish Succession* (5)—*legislation; Bill of Rights; Act of Settlement and other statutes* (6).

1. **William and Mary, 1689-1694. William III.,—1702.**—From youth upwards one idea had possessed the soul of *William of Orange*—that of breaking the power of Louis XIV.—and he valued his English kingdom chiefly as a means towards this end. Though weak in body, the energy of his spirit was unconquerable, and no danger ever daunted him. His manners however were cold, his temper sour, and he roused the English jealousy by placing men of his own nation about him. His wife was an amiable woman; but the *Jacobites*, that is, the extreme Tories who adhered to James, never ceased to taunt her for having ousted her father. Many Tories thought the deposition of the King wrong, and on this scruple, about four hundred clergymen and members of the Universities, with Sancroft and six other bishops at their head, resigned their preferments rather than swear allegiance to the new sovereigns. These men, among whom were five of the famous "Seven Bishops," were known as the *Non-jurors*.

2. **Ireland.**—As yet William was King of Ireland in little more than name. That country was divided between the Roman Catholic "Irishry,"—the original Irish and the descendants of the Norman-English settlers, probably about a million in number,—and

the Protestant "Englishry," consisting of about 200,000 English and Scottish colonists, who owned more than four-fifths of the property of Ireland, and whose inferiority in number was compensated by their superiority in wealth and civilization. The Lord-Deputy of Ireland, Tyrconnel, invited James over from his refuge in France, and raising his standard with the motto, "Now or never! Now and for ever!" called his countrymen to arms. The whole Irish race rose in answer—not that they cared for James, but because they desired independence,—and Tyrconnel soon mustered a mighty though half-savage host. Louis of France furnished arms, money, and officers, and James, thus equipped, landed in Ireland in March 1689, and held in Dublin a Parliament of his adherents, in which he gave his consent to *the great Act of Attainder*, whereby between two and three thousand Protestants were attainted of treason. The Englishry meanwhile stood gallantly at bay in *Enniskillen* and *Londonderry*. The latter city, under the government of *Major Henry Baker* and an aged clergyman, *George Walker*, was besieged by James's forces; and though reduced to extremity of hunger, its defenders hardly able to keep their feet for very weakness, it held out for a hundred and five days, until relieved from England. At the same time the Enniskilleners routed the Jacobites at the village of *Newton Butler*. In the summer of the next year, William himself went over to Ireland. England, dreading the power of Louis XIV., and provoked by his interference, had joined the general league—the "*Grand Alliance*," as it was called—of the chief powers of Europe against France. William's departure therefore was made the occasion of an attempt upon England by the French in concert with the Jacobites; and Admiral Herbert, who had been created *Earl of Torrington*, was ignominiously worsted in an engagement with the French fleet off *Beachy Head*. But

comfort came in the news of a decisive victory won by William on the 1st of July, 1690, over the Irish and French, who, led by James, Tyrconnel, and Lauzun, made a stand behind the river *Boyne*. William's army forced the passage after a sharp struggle, William himself leading his cavalry through the river, and, with his sword in the left hand —for his other arm was crippled by a wound— showing himself wherever the fight was hottest. His best general, *Marshal Schomberg*, a German Protestant who had once been in the French service, was killed while rallying the Huguenots in William's army. "Come on, gentlemen, there are your persecutors," he cried, urging them on against the enemy. Walker, who had lately been made Bishop of Londonderry, and had accompanied his townsmen to the battle, fell at the same spot. "What took him there?" said William, who thought his presence uncalled-for. James, when he saw the day going against him, galloped off, and reproaching his Irish troops with cowardice, made his way to the coast, whence he sailed for France. Meanwhile the French admiral, the *Count of Tourville*, finding that, contrary to the prediction of the exiled Jacobites, the country did not rise to join him, departed, after having sacked the defenceless town of Teignmouth. The reduction of Ireland to England was effected the next year by the Dutch general *Ginkell*, afterwards created *Earl of Athlone*, who gained, July 12, 1691, the battle of *Aghrim* over the Irish and their new French general, *St. Ruth*, who fell in the fight. *Limerick*, their last stronghold, surrendered to Ginkell in October, its gallant defender, *Patrick Sarsfield*, and as many as would follow him, being permitted to pass to the French service. The domination of the colonists was now assured, and rigorous laws were made to hold down the Roman Catholics, the bravest and best of whom, being denied all chance of rising

in their own land, entered the service of foreign states.

3. **The War with France.**—In 1692, during William's absence on the Continent, another French invasion was projected; but the allied English and Dutch fleets, commanded in chief by Admiral Russell, attacked and defeated Admiral Tourville in the Channel, chased the enemy to the Bay of *La Hogue*, and there burned the French ships in the sight of James. There was great rejoicing at this victory, not merely because people were proud of the exploit, but because it saved the island from invasion. It was a grievous blow to James, who had been led to believe that the English fleet was more likely to join than to oppose him. Russell himself, one of the seven who had signed the invitation to William, had lately been in treasonable correspondence with the exiled King; but on the day of battle he did his duty. Many indeed of William's English servants were not thoroughly to be trusted—like Russell, they secured themselves against the chances of a counter-revolution, or gratified feelings of irritation against the existing government, by playing fast and loose between the rival Kings. On land the struggle was chiefly carried on in the Spanish Netherlands (Belgium and Luxemburg), where William led his army in person. He was more than once defeated, but his patience and tenacity, and the skill with which he repaired a loss, made him a match for his more brilliant adversaries. At last Louis, worn out by the long war, consented to acknowledge the Prince of Orange as King of Great Britain; and this led to the general peace which was made at *Ryswick* in 1697. Although the English had not to fight on their own soil, this war put a great strain upon their resources. In 1692, the year of La Hogue, the *land-tax* was first imposed, and this being found insufficient, the government next raised money by a loan. Thus

began the *National Debt*. Among the difficulties of the country must be reckoned the bad state of its silver coin, arising from the fraudulent practice of "clipping." The coinage of additional money, with its edges so milled that it could not be clipped without detection, seemed only to aggravate the evil; for every man tried to pay in light, and to be paid in heavy coin. At last, in 1696, an Act was passed for a new coinage, and while this was going on, much inconvenience and even hardship was caused by the scarcity of silver, although the Mint, with the great philosopher Isaac Newton at its head, coined faster than it had ever done before. Fortunately at this moment, when the patience of the nation was thus severely tried, the King happened to be in special favour, owing to the general indignation at a recently detected Jacobite conspiracy for his assassination on his way back from hunting. In the excitement caused by this discovery, more than four hundred of the Commons solemnly pledged themselves to stand by William in life or to avenge him in death, and their example was generally followed throughout the nation. The management of the re-coinage reflected great credit upon the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, *Charles Montague*, a young Whig, noted for bringing about the foundation, in 1694, of the *Bank of England*, on a plan devised by a Scotsman, *William Paterson*.

4. **Death of Mary.**—In 1694, on the 28th December, Queen Mary died of small-pox. Not long afterwards, by her husband's orders, the unfinished palace of Greenwich was turned into an hospital for seamen of the Royal Navy; and thus, in honour of her memory, was carried out the wish she had formed at the time when difficulty was found in providing for the many wounded at La Hogue. The additions to the palace were made by Sir Christopher Wren.

5. **The Spanish Succession.**—After the Peace of Ryswick came a time of sore mortification to William. Not only did the new House of Commons, which met in 1698, insist on having the greater part of the army disbanded, but they further forced him to send away all his foreign troops. He stooped to ask as a personal favour that his Dutch Guards might stay, but in vain. To the mass of Englishmen, whether Tories or Whigs, the very name of standing army was hateful. The Tory remembered that by a standing army Cromwell had made himself master of England; the Whig remembered that by a standing army Charles and James had hoped to carry out their designs against the English liberties and religion. Fresh ill-feeling arose between the King and the Commons on the subject of the disposal of forfeited land in Ireland, much of which he had bestowed on his personal friends. The Commons constrained him to give his assent to an Act for annulling all his Irish grants, and applying the forfeitures to the public service. Abroad too the prospect was gloomy. In 1700 *Charles, King of Spain*, died childless, bequeathing his vast dominions — Spain, the Indies, the Netherlands, Naples, Sicily, and Milan—to his kinsman *Philip, Duke of Anjou*, a grandson of Louis XIV. The danger of a general war arising out of the rival claims of the Houses of Austria and of France to the Spanish succession had long been foreseen; and in hopes of averting strife and especially of preventing Spain from falling to a French prince, two successive "*Partition Treaties*," providing for the division of the Spanish dominions, had already been made between England and the United Provinces on the one side and France on the other. By the last of these treaties the *Archduke Charles of Austria*, son of the Emperor Leopold I., was to have the Indies, the Netherlands, and Spain itself, with the exception of the province of Guipuzcoa, which, with the kingdom of Naples

and Sicily, was to pass to the *Dauphin*, son of Louis XIV. When, regardless of this engagement, Louis accepted for his grandson the bequest of the entire Spanish monarchy, William desired at once to take steps to prevent such an overwhelming increase of the French power. Having parted with his Whig advisers, he called Tories to his councils, and summoned a new Parliament, which met early in 1701. But the House of Commons, in which the Tories were strong, showed no disposition to support him against France. Its chief object was to hunt down the late Whig ministers, against whom it prepared articles of impeachment, one of the charges against them being their share in the Partition Treaties, which were thought to have been framed more for the benefit of the Dutch than the English. Altogether the Commons displayed such bitterness and party spirit that the people gradually turned against their own representatives. A petition, signed by a number of gentlemen and freeholders of Kent, was sent up, protesting against any distrust of the King, and begging the House to turn its loyal addresses into Bills of Supply and to enable his Majesty to assist his allies. This so angered the House that it sent to prison the five Kentish gentlemen who had brought up the petition. But the incident showed the turn of feeling towards the Whig side; and William's cause was served by the imprudence of the French King. In September 1701, James II. died, and, in the face of the Treaty of Ryswick, his son, whom the Jacobites called *James III.*, and the Whigs called "*the Pretender*," was recognized by Louis as King of England, Scotland, and Ireland. This roused general indignation. William seized the opportunity to dissolve the Parliament and to call another, which, meeting Dec. 30, 1701, requested William to make no peace with France until reparation for this affront was obtained. The King's health was breaking down, but, nerved

by thoughts of the work before him, he still bore up. In February 1702, when he was riding at Hampton Court, his horse fell over a mole-hill, the King was thrown, and broke his collar-bone; sinking under the shock, he died on the 8th March, in his fifty-second year. As Queen Mary had had no children, the Crown, according to the settlement made by the *Declaration* and *Bill of Rights*, passed to the Princess Anne of Denmark.

6. **Legislation.**—Chief among the statutes of this reign stands the *Bill of Rights*, which, after reciting the Declaration of the Convention, declared it, with some additions, to be law. The levying of money for the use of the Crown, without grant of Parliament, the keeping of a standing army in time of peace, unless by consent of Parliament, were herein declared illegal. The right of subjects to petition, of electors freely to choose their representatives, the right of the legislature to freedom of debate, the necessity of frequent parliaments, were affirmed. The methods by which in late years the administration of justice had been tampered with, the imposition of "excessive fines," the infliction of "cruel and unusual punishments," were condemned. The power, which James II. had illegally exercised, of dispensing with laws by regal authority was abolished; and a Roman Catholic, or any one marrying a Roman Catholic, was made incapable of wearing the Crown. The *Toleration Act*, though not affording complete religious liberty, gave enough to satisfy the mass of the Protestant Dissenters; Roman Catholics and deniers of the Trinity were excluded from its benefits. The *oaths of allegiance* and *supremacy* were replaced by new and simpler forms, that of supremacy consisting mainly of a renunciation of the Pope's authority. The first *Mutiny Act* gave the sovereign a temporary power of punishing mutiny or desertion by the special jurisdiction known as *martial law*. Similar Acts,

limited to a year's duration, are still the only means by which the Crown can legally keep an army. These statutes were all passed in the first year of William and Mary. In 1695 the press became free; hitherto nothing could be printed without the licence of an officer appointed by the government, but now this censorship was given up, and newspapers at once made their appearance. In the next year was passed the *Act for regulating of trials in cases of treason.* Hitherto the law had placed those accused of high treason at great disadvantage, and before the Revolution such trials had often been little better than judicial murders; by this statute, among other provisions for securing the accused person a fair trial, it was enacted that he should have a copy of the indictment delivered to him five days before trial, and should be allowed to make his defence by counsel. The *Act of Settlement*, passed in 1701, settled the Crown, in default of heirs of Anne or of William, upon the granddaughter of James I. and daughter of Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, the *Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover*, and her heirs, being Protestants. There were other families nearer in the order of inheritance than the House of Hanover, but they were passed over as being Roman Catholic. Some articles were inserted in the Act of Settlement, to take effect only after the succession under the new limitation to the House of Hanover. Of these, two of the most important were, that whosoever should hereafter come to the possession of the Crown, should join in communion with the established Church of England; and that the judges should hold their offices during good behaviour, not, as formerly, at the royal pleasure. In the following year a statute was passed which imposed on members of parliament, civil and military officers, ecclesiastics, lawyers and others, an *oath of abjuration*, by which they abjured the title of "the pretended Prince of Wales," who had been proclaimed in

France as King James III. of England, and bound themselves to maintain the settlement made of the Crown.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ANNE.

Anne; Prince George of Denmark; the Duke and Duchess of Marlborough (1)—*War of the Spanish Succession; battles of Blenheim and Ramillies; taking of Gibraltar; the Earl of Peterborough; battle of Almanza; Sir Cloudesley Shovell; battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet* (2)—*the Union of England and Scotland* (3)—*rise of the Tories; Peace of Utrecht* (4)—*death of Anne* (5)—*Queen Anne's Bounty* (6)—*the Dissenters* (7).

1. **Anne, 1702-1714.**—Queen *Anne* was a kind-hearted and well-meaning woman, rather slow of understanding and obstinate, though usually allowing herself to be led by those whom she liked. Her husband, *Prince George of Denmark*, of whom Charles II. said that he himself "had tried him drunk and sober, but there was nothing in him," was too insignificant in character to have any influence. From girlhood Anne had been ruled by the handsome and domineering *Sarah Jennings*, wife of Churchill; and so close was their friendship that they corresponded with each other under the names of *Mrs. Morley* and *Mrs. Freeman*, the latter being adopted by the favourite to denote her frankness. *John Churchill*, created *Earl*, and afterwards *Duke of Marlborough*, who within a week of Anne's accession was made Captain-General of the forces, was the ablest man of his time as a general and statesman, though he owed his favour with Anne chiefly to his wife's influence. Over him too Lady Marlborough's power was great. She had been a court beauty of slender fortune, with

whom Churchill had made a love-match—in this overcoming the greed of money of which he was always accused—and his devotion to her proved lifelong. Brave, gentle, and of imperturbable serenity of temper, noted for the care and humanity, then unusual, which he showed towards prisoners of war, he was yet not free from the political faithlessness of the age. After having at the Revolution deserted James for William, he had been disgraced for treasonable intrigues with James; nevertheless William, foreseeing that he would be the moving spirit in the next reign, had afterwards given him high command, and employed him in negotiating foreign alliances. Though his wife now sided with the Whigs, who supported the late King's war policy, Marlborough himself passed for a Tory, and thereby gained increased influence with the Queen, who loved the Church and the Tories, whom she preferred to call "the Church party." In truth he belonged to no party, his main objects being that war should be declared, and that he should command the English forces. His policy therefore ran counter to that of the Tories, who thought that England ought as much as possible to confine herself to naval warfare, and not to undertake great military operations on the Continent. A dislike of armed interference in Continental politics, inherited from the time of William, continued to be a mark of a Tory until the French Revolution of 1789, when the course of European politics was changed, and the Tories in their turn became the warlike party.

2. **War of the Spanish Succession.**—King William's last work, a new alliance of England, Holland, and the Emperor against Louis XIV. and his grandson, survived him. This "*Grand Alliance*" was joined by many of the European powers, and war with France was soon afterwards declared, the Allies supporting the claim of the Archduke Charles of Austria

to the Spanish crown. Marlborough, in command of the allied English and Dutch forces, now entered upon that course of splendid achievements which gained him the high place he holds among generals. In his first campaigns in the Netherlands he was hampered by the interference of the Dutch authorities; but in 1704, leading his army into Bavaria, he joined his forces with those of the Emperor's general, *Prince Eugene of Savoy*, in whom he found an able and zealous ally. On the 2nd August, 1704, he won, in concert with Eugene, the great battle of *Blenheim* over the allied French and Bavarians under *Marshal Tallard*, who was there taken prisoner. After the main body of Tallard's army was routed, about 11,000 Frenchmen were surrounded in the village of Blenheim, and constrained to lay down their arms. The wreck of the French and Bavarian army retreated across the Rhine, and the fortunes of the French in Germany were ruined. The greatness of the success was not to be measured by its military results alone. For years men had looked upon Louis XIV. as well-nigh invincible; William himself had done little more than keep him in check. It was Marlborough who first turned the tide of French success, and broke the spell of victory. Marlborough, in reward of his services, received the crown land of Woodstock, upon which was afterwards built the Palace of Blenheim. His next two campaigns were mainly carried on in the Netherlands, where, on the 12th May, 1706, he won another great battle, that of *Ramillies*. But meanwhile the Allied arms had been less successful in the Spanish Peninsula, though the rock and fortress of *Gibraltar*, valuable as the key of the Mediterranean, were taken by *Admiral Sir George Rooke* and the Prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, and have ever since remained in the keeping of England. *Charles Mordaunt, Earl of Peterborough*, a clever, eccentric man, who flew about the world, seeing, it was

said, more kings and more postilions than any other man in Europe, for a while carried all before him in Spain; but, as the Archduke Charles would not take his advice, he left in disgust and eventually he was recalled. Brilliant as his genius was, it had been wasted for lack of patience and forbearance; unlike the placid Marlborough, he could not get on with the dull men about him, and Charles, whom he had served so well, was only thankful to be rid of him. After he had gone, affairs were mismanaged, and in 1707 the allied English, Dutch, and Portuguese were utterly defeated by the French on the plain of *Almanza.* In this action the French were led by an Englishman, King James's illegitimate son the *Duke of Berwick*, while the English were led by a Huguenot, the *Marquess of Ruvigny*, created *Earl of Galway*; so that after all, as the Spaniards said in jest, "the English general had routed the French." Other disasters followed. *Sir Cloudesley Shovell*, who from a cabin-boy had risen to be one of the best of the English admirals, was lost with three of his vessels on the rocks of Scilly. It is said that he was cast ashore, and reached, worn out with fatigue, the hut of a woman, by whom he was murdered for the sake of a ring and other valuable property he had upon him. The next year was more fortunate, Marlborough and Eugene gaining the battle of *Oudenarde* in the Netherlands, and the island of *Minorca* being taken from the Spaniards. Other successes brought Louis to seek terms of peace; but the allies required more than he would yield, specially pressing the humiliating condition that he should aid in driving his grandson from the Spanish throne. "If I must wage war," he said, "I would rather wage it against my enemies than against my children;" and, though his navy was swept from the seas and his people were starving, France yet nerved herself for another campaign, in which Marlborough

and Eugene gained the bloody and fruitless victory of *Malplaquet*.

3. The Union of England and Scotland.—The *Union of England and Scotland* into one Kingdom by the name of *Great Britain* was brought about in 1707. Thenceforth there was only one Parliament for the two countries, and *English*, *Welsh*, and *Scots* were all included under the common name of *British*. The Crown of the United Kingdom was settled, as that of England had already been, in default of heirs of Anne, upon Sophia of Hanover. Scotland retained its Presbyterian form of Church-government, and its own laws. A national flag—the same as that which had been ordered by James I., but which had never come into use—was appointed for the United Kingdom.

4. Ascendancy of the Tories.—In 1709 it chanced that one *Dr. Sacheverell* preached two sermons, one before the Judges of Assize at Derby, the other before the Lord Mayor at St. Paul's, in which the Doctor spoke against the toleration granted to Dissenters, and put forward the then favourite Tory doctrine of *non-resistance*—that is, that nothing could justify a subject in taking up arms against his rightful sovereign. The Whigs, who felt this as a slur upon the Revolution, brought about his impeachment, and he was condemned by the Lords; but his sentence was so light that the result was looked upon as a victory by his Tory friends; and the common people, who were at this time all against the Whigs and the Dissenters, made great rejoicings. "God bless your Majesty and the Church! We hope your Majesty is for Dr. Sacheverell," had been the cry of the crowd who pressed round Anne's sedan-chair when she went to hear the trial. The stir about this business and the popular zeal for Sacheverell mark the feeling in favour of the Tories, and of the Church which was supposed to be in danger from the Whigs. Anne's prime minister,

as we should now call him, the *Earl of Godolphin*, was indeed a Tory, but he was Marlborough's firm friend, and, like him, had found it necessary more and more to ally himself with the Whigs. By degrees Anne became estranged from Marlborough, or rather from his wife who was insufferably overbearing; the people, once loud in applause of the great Duke, grew sick of the war, which the Tories asserted was only continued in order to fill Marlborough's pockets. The Duke's love of money, and the substantial rewards the war brought him in the way of pay and places gave some colour to the accusation. There is a story that Peterborough was once mistaken by a mob for Marlborough, and was about to be roughly handled. "Gentlemen," exclaimed the ready witted Earl, "I can convince you by two reasons that I am not the Duke. In the first place, I have only five guineas in my pocket; and in the second, they are heartily at your service." And he clinched the argument by throwing his purse among the mob. "I must every summer," Marlborough wrote bitterly to Godolphin, "venture my life in a battle, and be found fault with in the winter for not bringing home peace, though I wish for it with all my heart and soul." In 1710, not long after the trial of Sacheverell, the Queen dismissed Godolphin, and a Tory ministry came into office, having on their side the Queen's reigning favourite, *Abigail Masham*, a bedchamber woman who had gradually supplanted the haughty Duchess of Marlborough. The new ministers, *Robert Harley*, who was created *Earl of Oxford*, and *Henry St. John*, afterwards *Viscount Bolingbroke*, set themselves to put an end to the war; and this they brought about in an underhand manner, keeping Marlborough and the Allies in the dark. At last Marlborough was charged by the House of Commons with peculation, and was dismissed by the Queen from all his employments. A Tory, the *Duke of Ormonde*, was sent out in his place,

and was given secret orders not to engage in a siege or a battle. The Allies, deserted by the British Government, finally agreed to the *Peace of Utrecht* in 1713. The Archduke Charles, whom the Allies had wanted to make King of Spain, had lately become Emperor, and master of the Austrian dominions, and people in general no more wished to join Spain to Austria than to France; so Philip was allowed to keep his kingdom upon promise that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united. By the Treaty of Utrecht Great Britain gained the French colony of *Acadia* or *Nova Scotia*, established her right to *Hudson's Bay* and *Newfoundland*, and retained *Gibraltar* and the islands of *Minorca* and *St. Christopher*; while the French King acknowledged Anne as Queen of Great Britain, guaranteed the succession of the House of Hanover, and engaged to make the Pretender withdraw from the French dominions. Yet the Jacobites placed great hopes in the Secretary of State, Lord Bolingbroke, who was believed to design bringing about the succession of the *Chevalier de St. George* (as the Pretender was more courteously called), whom he and his friends urged, but in vain, to turn Protestant. This question of succession was brought more strongly before men's eyes by the death of the aged Princess Sophia, whereby her son *George Louis, Elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg*, became heir to the throne, all Anne's children having died young. Germany was at this time split into many small states ruled by Princes who within their own territories were absolute, though they in name acknowledged the Emperor as their head. Of these was the Elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg, the seat of whose court and government was *Hanover*, and who, as his title shows, was one of the nine German princes who had the right of electing the Emperor.

5. **Death of Anne.**—The Queen's death was

hastened by her agitation at a violent dispute in her presence between Oxford and Bolingbroke, who from friends had become open rivals. Bolingbroke so far prevailed that Oxford was dismissed from his office of Lord High Treasurer. Within a week the Queen was struck by apoplexy, and died August 1, 1714. Before her death she defeated the hopes of the Jacobites by delivering the Treasurer's staff to the Duke of Shrewsbury—the same Shrewsbury who had signed the invitation to the Prince of Orange—bidding him "use it for the good of her people." The Whig Privy Councillors flocked to the council-chamber, troops were ordered to London and Portsmouth, and every precaution was taken to secure the succession of the Protestant heir. Whether Bolingbroke really intended to bring in the Pretender is doubtful, but if he did, the vigorous measures of the Whigs put it out of his power.

6. **Queen Anne's Bounty** is a still existing benefit which was conferred by Anne upon the Church by restoring to it, for the increase of the poorer livings, the first-fruits and tenths of benefices which were paid formerly to the Pope and afterwards to Henry VIII. and his successors.

7. **The Dissenters.**—During the last four years of this reign, the Protestant Dissenters had some cause to fear for the safety of the religious liberty they had won at the Revolution. In 1711 an Act was passed to prevent what was called "occasional conformity." Many Dissenters, it was found, would qualify themselves for holding office or entering corporations, by receiving the Sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, as required by the Test and Corporation Acts. With intent to keep out of office all who were not really members of the established Church, the Act of 1711 forbade any officer, civil or military, or any magistrate of a corporation, to be present at a conventicle, under pain of fine and

loss of office. In 1714 Bolingbroke, to the joy of the extreme Tories and the disgust of the Whigs, obtained the passing of the *Schism Act*, which was intended to prevent Dissenters from keeping schools or teaching anything beyond the rudiments of education. It so happened that the very day fixed for this Act to come into effect was that on which the Queen died, and its operation was suspended by the new government.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

GEORGE I.

George I.; impeachment of Bolingbroke, Oxford and Ormonde; the Riot Act (1)—*the Pretender* (2)—*the South Sea Scheme* (3)—*death of George* (4)—*legislation; the Septennial Act; the Dissenters* (5).

1. **House of Hanover or of Brunswick-Lüneburg. George I., 1714-1727.**—*George, Elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg* (otherwise of *Hanover*), was proclaimed King of Great Britain and Ireland without a single Jacobite stirring a step. But he made no great haste to take possession of his kingdom; and, whether through indifference, fear, or natural slowness, let six weeks pass before he, in company with his only son, landed at Greenwich. The new ruler, though well received, was not a man to excite much loyalty. He was fifty-four years of age, small of stature, and awkward; he could speak no English, so that he had to be taught by rote a few words wherein to address his first Parliament; he had left his wife shut up in a German castle, and his private life was not such as to command any respect. As a King, he was honest and well-intentioned; but his excessive attachment to his native dominions proved a source of embarrassment to his ministers and of discontent

to the nation; and, except as a symbol of Protestantism and constitutional government, he had never any attraction for his British subjects. He kept the Pretender out, and reigned according to law; and that was all his most zealous supporters expected of him. His first ministry was composed almost wholly of Whigs; and the new Parliament proceeded to impeach Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormonde on charges of misconduct in the transactions relating to the Peace of Utrecht, and of intriguing with the Pretender. Bolingbroke had taken alarm early, and fled to France, whither Ormonde soon followed him. Acts of attainder were passed against both the fugitives; Oxford, standing his ground, was sent to the Tower, but, within two years, was acquitted and released. These proceedings increased the Tory discontent, which had already broken out in riots. "High Church and Ormonde for ever!" was the cry of the populace in Staffordshire, a county long noted for its Toryism. The disturbances became so serious as to lead to the passing of the *Riot Act*, under which an unlawful assembly which does not disperse on command of a magistrate becomes guilty of felony.

2. **The Pretender.**—On the 6th Sept. 1715, *John Erskine, Earl of Mar*, a Scottish nobleman whose frequent changes of politics had won him the nickname of "Bobbing John," raised in the Highlands the standard of the Pretender, for whom the Jacobite gentlemen in the south of Scotland and in Northumberland and Cumberland also took up arms. A similar rising was expected in the West of England; but this the government crushed by arresting the influential members of the party. The English rebels, together with those of the Scots who had joined them, being defeated at Preston, surrendered on the 13th Nov., and the same day Mar's army was engaged by *John Campbell, Duke of Argyll*, at *Sheriffmuir* in a drawn battle.

"There's some say that we wan,
Some say that they wan,
Some say that nane wan at a', man,"

runs the Scottish ballad; but practically the King's troops had the victory. Later in the year the Pretender himself appeared in Scotland; but he found his affairs going so badly that he soon slipped away with Mar to France, and the insurgents broke up. Seven noblemen were sentenced to death for this attempt; of these, three were respited, and two escaped, one of them, the *Earl of Nithsdale*, by the help of his wife, getting out of the Tower in woman's clothes the day before that which had been fixed for his execution. *Thomas Forster* of Bamburgh, the leader of the English rebels, made his escape from Newgate by means of false keys. *James Radcliffe, Earl of Derwentwater*, an English Roman Catholic, and *William Gordon, Viscount Kenmure*, a Scottish Protestant, together with twenty-six other persons, all taken in arms, suffered death. This was not the only attempt in favour of the Pretender made during this reign. George had bought from Denmark and added to Hanover the duchies of Bremen and Verden, which had been taken from *Charles XII., King of Sweden*. Charles, eager to revenge himself upon George, planned, in connexion with the Jacobites, an invasion of Scotland; but the conspiracy was discovered and crushed early in 1717. A fresh chance was afforded the Pretender by a war the next year between Great Britain and Spain, arising out of the attempts of the Spanish King to possess himself of Sicily, which by the Treaty of Utrecht had been taken from him. Among the first events of this war was the destruction of the Spanish fleet off *Cape Passaro* by Admiral *Sir George Byng* (afterwards Viscount Torrington). One of Byng's officers, Captain Walton, who was sent in pursuit of some of the enemy's men-of-war, reported his success in this businesslike despatch:—"Sir, we

have taken and destroyed all the Spanish ships and vessels which were upon the coast, the number as per margin." The margin showed a list of eight men-of-war, besides four smaller vessels. In 1719 a Spanish force, under the command of the Duke of Ormonde and other Jacobite refugees, was sent from Cadiz to invade Scotland; but the greater part of the fleet which carried them, being shattered by a storm off Cape Finisterre, was constrained to return. About three hundred Spaniards succeeded in landing in the Western Highlands, where some of the people joined them; but being defeated at *Glenshiel* by the King's troops, they surrendered at discretion. Throughout the eighteenth century Great Britain was constantly mixed up with Continental negotiations and wars. This came partly of having foreign Kings, and partly of the policy of the age, which was to secure the peace of Europe by the leading states enforcing a sort of equality of strength—a "Balance of Power"—among themselves. Territory was taken from one and given to another, people were handed from one master to another without a thought of their wishes—men, it was said, "would cut and pare states and kingdoms as though they were so many Dutch cheeses"—treaties were made, and wars undertaken to enforce them. In short, though peace was to be secured by the Balance of Power, it took a great deal of wrangling and not a little fighting to preserve the balance. At this time France had ceased to stand by the Pretender. Louis XIV. being dead, the new French government in 1717 entered into alliance with Great Britain.

3. **The South Sea Scheme.**—In 1720 England went mad over the famous *South Sea scheme.* The *South Sea Company* had a monopoly of trade to the Spanish coasts of America, and, for the purpose of reducing the National Debt, engaged with the government to buy up certain annuities which had been granted in the last two reigns. The annuitants

were invited to exchange their stock for that of the South Sea Company. A rage for speculation set in; the 100*l.* shares of the Company went up to 1,000*l.*; then they fell, a panic followed; and thousands of families were ruined. The people became furious against the directors; and, though the estates of the latter were confiscated by Parliament for the benefit of the sufferers, the punishment was exclaimed against as too mild. *Robert Walpole*, whose financial skill was well known, became first minister of the Crown; and by his management the government was helped through its difficulties. The state of confusion into which the country was thrown, as well as the birth of the Pretender's son, *Charles Edward Stuart*, stirred up the Jacobites again to plot an invasion. *Francis Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester*, a leading "High Churchman"—that is, one of those who wished to see the Church more powerful, and who leaned towards the exiled Royal house—being found to be concerned in this conspiracy, was, by an Act of Pains and Penalties, deprived of his bishopric and banished. An *Act of Pains and Penalties* only differs from an Act of Attainder in inflicting some punishment less than death.

4. **Death of George.**—In the summer of 1727 the King left England for Hanover, and, being struck by apoplexy on his road to Osnabrück, died in his carriage in the night of the 10th June. By his wife *Sophia Dorothea, Princess of Zell*, he left one son, *George Augustus, Prince of Wales*, with whom he had at one time been notoriously on bad terms.

5. **Legislation.**—By a statute, known as the *Triennial Act*, passed under William and Mary, no Parliament could last longer than *three* years. But after the rebellion of 1715, when the government was loth to face a general election, this statute was repealed by another which lengthened to *seven* years the term for which a Parliament might last. This

Septennial Act is still law. In 1719 was passed an *Act for Strengthening the Protestant Interest*, which, by repealing the provisions in the Act of 1711 against "occasional conformity," and the Schism Act, redressed the recent grievances of the Dissenters. In the next reign Acts were from time to time passed for indemnifying those who had not duly qualified themselves for the offices they held; and at last it became the practice to pass such Acts every year; so that, though the Test and Corporation Acts were still unrepealed, all offices were practically thrown open to Protestant Dissenters.

CHAPTER XL.

GEORGE II.

George II.; administration of Walpole (1)—*war with Spain; Anson's voyage* (2)—*war of the Austrian Succession; battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy* (3)—*the Young Pretender; battle of Culloden; end of the Stuart line* (4)—*war with France; shooting of Byng; Pitt's administration; death of Wolfe; acquisition of Canada; battles of Quiberon and Minden* (5)—*India; Clive; "the Black Hole"; battles of Plassy and Wandewash* (6)—*death of George* (7)—*reform of the Kalendar* (8)—*the Eddystone Lighthouse* (9)—*rise of Methodism* (10)—*literature* (11).

1. **George II., 1727-1760.**—*George II.*, like his father the late King, was German by birth, German in feeling and politics, attached to his native dominions, and for their sake ever interfering in Continental affairs. Like his father also, he was at variance with his son, *Frederick, Prince of Wales*, a weak young man who was popular chiefly because the King was unpopular. George II. had however this advantage over his predecessor, that he could speak English

fluently. In character he was methodical, parsimonious, stubborn, and passionate, of an intrepid spirit, and fond of war. His private life was not creditable, yet he was, after his fashion, sincerely attached to his clever wife, *Caroline of Brandenburg-Anspach*, who had the art of ruling without seeming to rule. For the first ten years of his reign he was managed by the Queen, and through her by Sir Robert Walpole, whose constant policy was to keep England at peace and himself in power. One of Walpole's financial plans however was very near displacing him. This was a scheme for extending the Excise duties, which were already most unpopular. The Tories and the Opposition Whigs—"*Patriots*," as the latter called themselves—combining against it, contrived to lash the country into such a fury that it was well-nigh ready to rebel. Walpole therefore, though confident of the advantages of the measure, gave it up, saying that he would never be the minister to enforce taxes at the expense of blood.

2. **War with Spain.**—A similar clamour drove Walpole into a war with Spain in 1739. The public mind was embittered against the Spaniards by the means they took to check contraband trade with their American colonies, and by their alleged cruelties towards English seamen. A merchant captain named Robert Jenkins told at the bar of the House of Commons how the Spaniards had tortured him and torn off his ear; and the tale, true or false, roused the English to fury. When war was declared, the populace of London set the church bells ringing. "They may ring the bells now," said Walpole, "before long they will be wringing their hands." Except in the taking of *Porto Bello* by *Admiral Vernon* with six ships, the war was not very successful. Commodore *Anson*, who was sent out to harass the coasts of Chili and Peru, then Spanish colonies, made a voyage round the world, in which he suffered terrible hardships,

losing numbers of his crews from scurvy, and bringing home only his own ship, the *Centurion*. This expedition, though not politically profitable, raised the fame of British seamanship. Meanwhile Walpole, whose reluctance to enter upon this war had made him thoroughly unpopular, resigned all his offices in 1742, and thereupon was called to the House of Peers as *Earl of Orford*. His steady friend Queen Caroline had died in 1737.

3. **War of the Austrian Succession.**—On the death of the Emperor *Charles VI.* in 1740, a general war arose about the succession to his hereditary dominions, Great Britain giving aid to his daughter *Maria Theresa*, while France supported her opponent the *Elector of Bavaria*. The nation had constantly reason to suspect that the interests of King George's German dominions were preferred to those of Great Britain, and when Hanoverian troops were taken into British pay, the indignation was great. "It is now too apparent," said *William Pitt*, the boldest speaker among the "Patriots," "that this great, this powerful, this formidable Kingdom is considered only as a province to a despicable Electorate, and that these troops are hired only to drain this unhappy nation of its money." In the summer of 1743 the King joined his army in Germany, and took part in a not very brilliant campaign, the only achievement being a victory over the French at *Dettingen*, where George fought on foot at the head of his right wing. As yet, England and France, though they sent auxiliaries to opposite sides, were nominally at peace:—"We have the name of war with Spain without the thing," wrote Horace Walpole, son of Sir Robert, "and war with France without the name." War however was formally declared by the French in 1744. The battle of *Fontenoy*, in Hainault, 1745, in which the allied British, Dutch, and Austrians were beaten by the French under their great general *Marshal Saxe*, was, as far as the British and Hanoverian

forces were concerned, a splendid display of fighting qualities, though not of generalship. The French were strongly posted behind fortified villages and other defences, with only a narrow gap near the hamlet of Fontenoy. Into this opening a column of British and Hanoverian infantry, led by the King's favourite son *William, Duke of Cumberland*, penetrated under a heavy cannonade from batteries on either side; and though charged again and again by the French cavalry, it broke through the enemy's lines. The day seemed about to be won by sheer valour, when the French guns were brought up so as to fire down the length of the column, and thus forced it to retreat. A general peace was made at *Aix-la-Chapelle* (*Aachen*) in 1748.

4. **The Young Pretender.**—Early in this war the French government had secretly invited to France *Charles Edward Stuart* (who was called the *Young Pretender* and the *Young Chevalier*, to distinguish him from his father James, the *Old* Pretender), and had planned an invasion of England in his favour. With this intent, an expedition put to sea in 1744, but it was scattered by a storm. The next year, 1745, Charles, tired of waiting for French help, landed with seven attendants in the Highlands, and there mustered a small force of adherents, which gathered strength as it moved on. The royal general, *Sir John Cope*, let him descend unopposed upon Edinburgh, where Charles caused his father to be proclaimed as *James VIII.* of Scotland. At *Preston-Pans*, between Edinburgh and the sea, he encountered Cope, and by the furious onset of the Highlanders broke and routed the royal army. After receiving some small supplies of money and arms from France, Charles crossed the Border, and, with four or five thousand men, pushed on for London. Giving the slip to an army led by the Duke of Cumberland, he advanced, to the great dismay of the capital, as far as *Derby*. But here the hearts of the rebel officers failed them; marvellous as their

success had been, there was no such rising in their favour as Charles had reckoned upon. Jacobitism existed in England merely as a traditional faith, or as a method of expressing discontent, not as a belief for which men would peril their lives and properties. Manchester, the only town that had shown any enthusiasm for the Chevalier, gave him less than two hundred recruits. Charles, unwillingly yielding to the wishes of his officers, retreated to Scotland, where, having found reinforcements, he laid siege to Stirling Castle, and routed General *Hawley* in the battle of *Falkirk*. But after the victory numbers of the Highlanders, according to their wont, went home with their plunder; and Charles, with diminished strength, fell back northwards before the Duke of Cumberland, by whom the Chevalier's disheartened and half-starved forces were overthrown on *Culloden Moor*, April 16, 1746. The English victory was tarnished by the cold-blooded slaughter of wounded men on the battle-field, and by the atrocities afterwards committed in the disaffected country—cruelties which gained for the Duke of Cumberland the nickname of "*The Butcher.*" For their share in this insurrection, known in popular Scottish phrase, from the year in which it took place, as "*the Forty-five,*" three Scottish peers, the *Earl of Kilmarnock*, and *Lords Balmerino* and *Lovat*, together with *Charles Radcliffe* (brother to the late Earl of Derwentwater), and a number of other men, nearly eighty in all, were put to death. An Act of Grace in the next reign restored their forfeited estates to their descendants. As for Charles, he wandered about the Highlands for five months, hunted from place to place by the soldiers, till, after many perils, he escaped in a French vessel. His future life was a sad one. Driven, in accordance with a stipulation of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, from France, he moved about the Continent, forming vain schemes for another invasion, and falling at last into degrading habits of

drunkenness. After the death of his father in 1766, he made Italy his abode, and died at Rome, Jan. 30, 1788, leaving no legitimate children. His younger brother *Henry Benedict*, who had been created a Cardinal, and was thenceforward known as *Cardinal York*, took priest's orders in the Church of Rome, and died in 1807. With him ended the ill-starred line of Stuart.

5. **War with France.**—Disputes about the boundaries of the English and French settlements in *North America* soon plunged the nation again into strife. The French encroached upon the English colonists; these resisted; and thus the mother countries were ere long engaged in hostilities. The war began disastrously, the most humiliating blow being the taking of the island of Minorca in 1756 by the French. *Admiral John Byng* (son of Lord Torrington) was sent out to relieve the English garrison of Minorca, but after a partial and indecisive engagement with the French squadron, he sailed back to Gibraltar without having effected his purpose. This slackness cost the unfortunate admiral his life; he was tried the next year by court-martial, and shot for not having done his utmost. In words which have become proverbial, the contemporary French writer Voltaire sarcastically represented Englishmen as holding that it was well "from time to time to put an admiral to death in order to encourage the others." The King had provided as far as possible for the safety of Hanover by entering into an alliance with *Frederick the Great, King of Prussia*; and thur Great Britain was drawn into the *Seven Years' War* between that prince and a confederacy of Continental powers, the chief of whom were France, Austria, and Russia. The English were at this time in the depths of despondency, regarding themselves as utterly degenerate, and ready to be enslaved. On an alarm of a French invasion, Hanoverian and Hessian troops were hastily brought over; and some

began to murmur that it had fared ill with the Britons of old when they called Hengest and Horsa to their aid. Even the coolest and shrewdest men in the country shared in the general despair. "It is time," wrote Horace Walpole, "for England to slip her cables and float away into some unknown ocean." "We are no longer a nation," was the expression of the calm and polished Lord Chesterfield. Since Walpole, there had been no great minister in power. *Lord Carteret*, afterwards *Earl of Granville*, who guided the nation's foreign policy in 1743 and 1744, was indeed a man of genius, but he became unpopular through supporting the Hanoverian policy of the King; *Henry Pelham*, a disciple of Walpole, was just able to keep things quiet; and on his death in 1754, the control of affairs passed into the hands of his brother the *Duke of Newcastle*, a man greedy of place and power, but singularly incompetent. The popular favourite was Pitt, grandson of a former governor of Madras. Pitt started in life as a cornet of horse, and in 1735 entered Parliament as member for Old Sarum. He at once joined the "Patriots," and his first speech cost him his commission in the army, for in those days men who took the King's pay were expected not to oppose the government. No more eloquent speaker had yet appeared in Parliament, and the effect of his oratory was heightened by his tall and commanding figure, his noble features, and his fiery glance. In 1756 he was made Secretary of State; but he was too much disliked by the King, who had not forgiven his speeches against Hanoverian measures, to be allowed to keep his office long. Pitt knew his own powers:—"I am sure," he said, "that I can save this country, and that nobody else can." In June, 1757, the King found that he must again accept him as his minister. The Duke of Newcastle was re-appointed First Lord of the Treasury, but Pitt, as Secretary of State, took the conduct of foreign

affairs. Under his administration the war was carried on with new vigour, till at last successes by sea and land began to come as fast as misfortunes had before. In September, 1759, *James Wolfe*, a young general of Pitt's choosing scaled with his forces the almost inaccessible heights on which *Quebec* stands, completely defeated the French army, and fell in the moment of victory. As he lay dying, he heard an officer exclaim, "They run!" "Who run?" asked Wolfe, raising himself. "The enemy." "Then God be praised! I shall die happy." The French general, the *Marquess of Montcalm*, was likewise mortally wounded. "So much the better," said he, "I shall not then live to see the surrender of Quebec." Five days after the battle Quebec capitulated, and within a year the whole of the French colony of *Canada* was in the hands of the British. At sea, *Admiral Sir Edward Hawke* gained off the point of *Quiberon*, on the coast of Britanny, a signal victory over the French (Nov. 20, 1759.) The English were superior in force; but as a storm was blowing, and the French lay close in shore, among rocks and sandbanks, the perils of the attack were great. Hawke singled out the French admiral's ship, the *Soleil Royal*, his pilot in vain warning him of the risk of running on a shoal. "You have done your duty in pointing out the danger," said Hawke, "you now are to obey my command, and lay me alongside the Soleil Royal." To keep up the war on the Continent, large subsidies were bestowed upon Frederick of Prussia; and a British and Hanoverian force, under the command of one of his generals, *Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick*, defeated the French in the battle of *Minden*, Aug. 1, 1759. "Indeed," wrote Horace Walpole, "one is forced to ask every morning what victory there is, for fear of missing one."

6. **India.**—In *India* an empire was being won. The chief European powers there were the French and

the English East India Companies. Successive Charters and Acts had raised the English Company almost into a sovereign power; it kept a small army, held law-courts, and had authority to make peace and war with non-Christian princes and people. Still the object it pursued was simply the Indian trade, of which constantly renewed Acts of Parliament gave it a monopoly, and it did not at first aspire to empire. The foundations of its dominion were laid by *Robert* (afterwards *Lord*) *Clive*, a young officer of the Company, who, though without any military training, proved himself a great general and statesman. Clive had been an idle and unruly lad, whose family had accepted for him a writership in the Company's service because they despaired of making anything of him at home; and it is said that when his father heard of his son's great deeds, he exclaimed, "After all, the booby has sense!" The war between France and England in 1744, which extended to India, was the first occasion of Clive's exchanging civil for military service; and though the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle caused a lull in European strife, the rival trading Companies in the East were soon at war again as auxiliaries of contending native princes. *Dupleix*, the able and ambitious governor of the French fort of *Pondicherry*, had made himself the greatest man in India, and the pre-eminence there of the French was almost secured, when the genius of Clive broke their power. The first exploit of the young Englishman was the successful defence in 1751 of *Arcot*, the capital of the Carnatic, against a native army with French auxiliaries. When the provisions of Clive's little garrison ran low, his *Sepoys* or native soldiers came to him with a proposal that all the rice should be given to their European comrades, who needed more food than Asiatics—the thin gruel, they said, which was strained away from the grain, would suffice for themselves. In 1756, *Suraj-ad-dowla*, the *Nabob* or Prince of *Bengal*, attacked and

took the English Company's settlement at *Calcutta*,—an event memorable for the horrible fate of the English there captured, who, a hundred and forty-six in number, were, in the hottest season, crowded into a cell not twenty feet square, known as the "*Black Hole.*" Only twenty-three of the captives survived the night. Clive was sent to avenge them, and the great victory which he won over Suraj-ad-dowla at *Plassy*, June 23, 1757, made the Company the real lords of Bengal. The mastery of the *Carnatic* was gained by Colonel *Eyre Coote's* victory over the French at *Wandewash*, Jan. 22, 1760. The next year Pondicherry surrendered to the English, and though it was afterwards given back, the French never recovered their power, and their East India Company soon came to an end.

7. **Death of George.**—In the midst of these conquests, George died suddenly at Kensington of heart-disease, Oct. 25, 1760. His eldest son Frederick having died in 1751, the King was succeeded by his grandson, *George William Frederick, Prince of Wales*. Between the accession of George II. and the withdrawal of the country from the Seven Years' War in 1763, the National Debt was more than doubled.

8. **Reform of the Kalendar.**—In 1751 was passed the statute for the reform of the kalendar. The *Julian Kalendar* (so called because it owed its origin to Julius Cæsar) made the year too long at the rate of nearly three days in four hundred years. In the 16th century the error had been corrected under a regulation of *Pope Gregory XIII.*, and the alteration, or *New Style*, had been in course of time accepted by most Christian countries. But in the British dominions people still went on with the *Old Style*, until at length the day they called the *first* of the month was in other lands the *twelfth*—in short, they were eleven days wrong in their reckoning. By the statute of 1751, these nominal days were dropped out of the month of

September, 1752, and the New Style was adopted. The memory of the ignorant opposition made to this reform is preserved in a picture by the contemporary painter Hogarth, where a Whig candidate for Parliament is represented as flattering the prejudices of the mob by having a banner inscribed, "*Give us our eleven days.*" By the same statute the legal year, instead of beginning, as formerly, on the 25th March, is reckoned from the 1st January. In the present work, the days of the month, down to 1751, have been given according to the Old Style, but the years have been reckoned as beginning on the 1st January.

9. **The Eddystone Lighthouse.**—Three lighthouses have been built one after another on the *Eddystone Rock.* The first, a wooden building, was swept away in the "Great Storm" of 1703, a hurricane such as had never been known before in England, which choked London Bridge with wrecks, blew down more than a hundred elm-trees in St. James' Park, caused the loss of several men-of war, and otherwise wrought great destruction of property and life. With the lighthouse perished its architect *Winstanley* and the workmen who were busied in repairing it. A second lighthouse, also built mainly of timber, was destroyed by fire in 1755. To *John Smeaton*, a great engineer, was entrusted the task of replacing it, which he did by a fine tower of stone, completed in 1759. Unfortunately the rock upon which this last stands has lately (1878) been found to be so undermined by the action of the sea that it has become necessary to make arrangements for rebuilding the lighthouse on a neighbouring part of the reef.

10. **Rise of Methodism.**—In this reign began the religious movement known as *Methodism*, of which the promoters were two clergymen of the Church of England, *George Whitefield* and *John Wesley*. The name of *Methodists* first sprang up at Oxford, where it was given in scorn to a small association of young

members of the University, who adopted a devout and rigid method of life, kept fast days, meditated and prayed, and visited the prisoners and the sick. Of this band were John Wesley, his brother Charles, afterwards noted as a writer of hymns, and Whitefield, who, after he had taken orders, began to preach with wonderful effect. His earnestness, his eloquence, his vehement action, and fine voice, which, it is said, could be heard a mile off, gave the first impulse to Methodism, which was then simply an awakening of a spirit of enthusiastic devotion, and that too among classes who had hitherto been neglected. When the churches were closed against the new teacher, Whitefield preached in the open air. This he first did to the colliers near Bristol, moving them to tears by his fervid oratory; and his example was followed by his associate Wesley. Methodism was frowned upon by the clergy, and held up to ridicule on the stage; its preachers were pelted and maltreated by the mob; but nevertheless it grew and prospered. The two great preachers however ere long diverged from each other in opinion: Whitefield, who died early, was the leader of the Calvinist section of the Methodists; Wesley, who died in 1791 at the age of eighty-seven, was the founder of the sect called after him, *Wesleyan.* He gave his followers a complete and elaborate organization, although it was not his intention to found a separate sect, but rather an order or society within the Church of England. The Methodists, however, being harassed and almost constrained to declare themselves Dissenters, gradually formed themselves into a distinct body.

11. Literature under Anne and the Two Georges.—The age of Anne was long looked upon as the most brilliant period in English literature. Among its chief ornaments was the Whig *Joseph Addison,* who wrote both poetry and prose, but was far superior in the latter. In his own day his most

admired work was the tragedy of *Cato*, now little esteemed; with modern readers his fame rests on the *Tatler* and *Spectator*, two periodical papers set on foot by his friend *Richard Steele*, to which Addison was the chief and the best contributor. His peculiar charm lay in his refined and delicate humour, and he did good service to morality by purifying literature from the taint of the Restoration, and showing that wit was not necessarily allied with vice, nor virtue with dulness. *Daniel De Foe*, a Dissenter, who early in Anne's reign had been set in the pillory for writing an ironical pamphlet professing to express the views of a bigoted churchman, was the author of one of the most renowned and popular of English fictions, the *Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*. His skill lay in giving such an air of reality to his tales, of which he wrote many, that the reader can hardly believe them to be merely works of imagination. Similar power was possessed by the great satirist *Jonathan Swift*, who went over from the Whig to the Tory party, and became Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin. The best known of his works is *Gulliver's Travels*, the hero of which describes nations of pygmies, of giants, of speaking and reasoning horses, with a simplicity and minuteness which make his wildest marvels seem like truth. Under this form Swift conveyed a stinging satire on the court of George I., the politics of Europe, the follies of speculative philosophers, and the vices of mankind. Another Tory wit, *John Arbuthnot*, was the author of the *History of John Bull*, a burlesque account of the negotiations and war of the Spanish Succession. From this satire arose the now familiar national name of "*John Bull*," first given to the clothier who represented England in Arbuthnot's burlesque. The Dutch nation was figured as Nic. Frog the linendraper; King Charles of Spain was Lord Strutt, his French successor was Philip Baboon, and the great King Louis himself appeared as

Lewis Baboon. To the reign of George II. belong the famous novels, *Pamela*, and the *Histories of Clarissa Harlowe* and *Sir Charles Grandison*, by *Samuel Richardson*, whose name stands high among English authors, though his tales are too long to be popular at the present day. Three other noted writers of fiction, *Henry Fielding*, *Tobias Smollett*, and *Laurence Sterne*, are best remembered by their respective novels of *Tom Jones*, *Roderick Random*, and *Tristram Shandy*. Smollett also wrote a *History of England*, part of which is generally appended as a continuation to the *History of England* by the Scottish philosopher *David Hume*, who only carried his work down to the Revolution. This work of Hume's became the generally received version of English history—a position which it hardly deserved, as, though good in style, it is one-sided and inaccurate. *Matthew Prior*, noted as a writer of light and sparkling verse, flourished in the reigns of William and Anne. *Alexander Pope*, who was born in 1688 and died in 1744, is one of the great poets of England. His *Rape of the Lock*, a mock-heroic tale of a fashionable beauty whose long ringlet was secretly cut off by one of her admirers, and his moral and satirical poems, among them the *Dunciad*, in which he fell savagely upon the inferior authors of his day, are his chief works. His translation of the *Iliad* of Homer is a fine poem in itself, though he caught little or nothing of the spirit and tone of his original. Terseness, point, harmony, and satire often becoming ferocious and coarse, are Pope's characteristics; his versification was the admiration of his age, for before him no one had written heroic couplets with such smoothness. In creed he was a Roman Catholic, in character violent and spiteful, and in person small and deformed. *John Gay* was the author of the *Beggars' Opera*, of the *Fables*, and of the popular ballad of *Black-Eyed Susan*. *Nicholas Rowe*, who died in 1718, was a playwriter of

note, although one of his best tragedies, the *Fair Penitent*, was stolen from Massinger, whose works had fallen into neglect. Addison, as has been already said, wrote poetry, and some of his hymns are to be found in most hymn-books. The hymns also of *Isaac Watts*, a dissenting minister, are still among the most popular compositions of their kind. Watts lived on into the reign of George II., though many of his hymns were composed before Anne had come to the throne. Equally well known are the beautiful *Morning and Evening Hymns*, first published in 1700, of *Thomas Ken*, the good Bishop of Bath and Wells, who bore his part among the Seven Bishops, and who yet refused, from conscientious scruples, to withdraw his allegiance from James. The poems called the *Seasons*, which have always been popular, though they are marred by frequent pompousness and affectation, are the work of *James Thomson*, a Scot by birth, who died in 1748. Thomson, in conjunction with *David Mallet*, wrote the masque of *Alfred*, which contains the fine national ode of *Rule, Britannia*. This song, though commonly attributed to Thomson, is thought by some to have been written by Mallet; the music to it was composed by *Dr. Arne*. *Edward Young*, who flourished under Anne and the first two Georges, wrote the *Night Thoughts*, a series of poems in proof of the immortality of the soul and against unbelief in Christianity. *William Collins*, who died in 1756, was in his own time little appreciated, although he was one of the best lyric poets of his century. He is however surpassed by *Thomas Gray*, whose famous *Elegy in a Country Churchyard* was published in 1749. A scholar and student, devoting himself chiefly to reading, Gray wrote little, but with great care. Among his best pieces is the noble ode of the *Bard*, which, being founded upon the tale of the massacre of the Welsh bards, unluckily branded Edward I. with the undeserved name of tyrant.

CHAPTER XLI.

GEORGE III.

George III. (1)—*Treaty of Paris* (2)—*John Wilkes* (3)—*publication of the debates* (4)—*revolt of the North American Colonies; foundation of the United States; war with France; death of Chatham; war with Spain and Holland; the "armed neutrality"; invasion of Jersey; Rodney's victory of the* 12*th April; siege of Gibraltar* (5)—*the Lord George Gordon Riots* (6)—*Pitt and Fox; the Prince of Wales; insanity of the King; joy at his recovery; the Regency* (7)—*War of the French Revolution; Burke and Fox; Lord Howe's victory of the* 1*st June; suspension of cash payments by the Bank of England; battle of St. Vincent; Nelson; mutiny of the Channel Fleet; mutiny at the Nore; battle of Camperdown; death of Burke* (8)—*Napoleon Buonaparte; his expedition to Egypt; battle of the Nile; defence of Acre; death of Tippoo Sahib; confederacy of Russia, Denmark, and Sweden; battle of Copenhagen; battle of Alexandria; Peace of Amiens* (9)—*war with Buonaparte; detention of English travellers; Buonaparte seizes Hanover; threatens to invade Great Britain; overthrows the Austrians; battle of Trafalgar; death of Nelson; death of Pitt; Berlin Decree; bombardment of Copenhagen* (10)—*Arthur Wellesley; battle of Assye; Peninsular War; battle of Vimeiro; death of Sir John Moore; battles of Talavera, Salamanca, Vitoria, and Toulouse; fall of Buonaparte* (11)—*return of Buonaparte to France; battle of Waterloo; surrender of Buonaparte* (12)—*war with the United States; bombardment of Algiers* (13)—*National Debt; general distress; the Luddites; death of George III.; Princess Charlotte* (14)—*Royal Marriage Act* (15)—*independence of the Irish Parliament; Irish Rebellion of* 1798; *Union of Great Britain and Ireland* (16)—*Indian affairs; Ceylon; discoveries and improvements* (17)—*Howard; abolition of the slave-trade; Romilly* (18)—*literature at the end of* 18*th century* (19)—*early* 19*th century literature* (20)—*painting* (21).

1. **George III., 1760-1820.**—*George III.*, eldest son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, though not highly educated, was pleasing in manners and appearance, well-conducted, and well-intentioned. The nation, hitherto always grumbling at its foreign kings who were never so happy as when out of their kingdom, hailed with delight the accession of a born Englishman; and the Tories, who, ever since the coming in of the House of Hanover, had been in the position, unnatural to them, of the party opposed to the court, transferred to their new ruler the loyalty formerly bestowed on the House of Stuart. About a year after his accession the King married *Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.*

2. **Treaty of Paris.**—The man who had most influence with the young King was *John Stuart, Earl of Bute*, who early in the reign was made one of the Secretaries of State, and who became perhaps the most unpopular minister of modern times. He was not only a court favourite, but also a Tory and a Scot; and at that time, when the rebellion of 1745 was still remembered, there was much ill-feeling between the Scots and English. The King and Bute meant to put an end to the war; and in this they had with them many of the ministers, who were beginning to count the cost of Pitt's glories. In 1761 France and Spain entered into a secret alliance, with intent to make war together upon Great Britain. This treaty becoming known to Pitt, he urged his colleagues at once to declare war against Spain; and on their opposition, the "*Great Commoner*," as he was called, resigned office. The war with Spain nevertheless broke out; but peace was made as soon as possible with both countries by the *Treaty of Paris*, 1763, under which Great Britain kept Canada and all the French possessions (except New Orleans) east of the Mississipi, and some West Indian islands which had been taken

from France, regained Minorca, and obtained *Florida* from Spain.

3. **John Wilkes.**—With the peace began a time of fierce factions and unpopular ministers. King George, who at his accession was two and twenty years of age, had schemes for managing everything himself, and had made up his mind that he would not, as the two Georges before him had done, put himself into the power of the Whig party. But his plans did not work well, and in the early part of his reign nothing went on smoothly. Lord Bute became so unpopular that he durst not appear in the streets without a hired gang of prize-fighters to protect him, and not long after the peace he gave up office. His successor, *George Grenville*, made his administration odious by the illegal arrest in 1763 of *John Wilkes* for libelling it in a paper called the *North Briton*. Wilkes, then member for Aylesbury, was a man of bad character, but witty and agreeable; and his persecution by the ministry made him a popular hero. Some years later, when the *Duke of Grafton* was prime minister, Wilkes became still more famous as the subject of a struggle between the House of Commons and the freeholders of Middlesex, who maintained their right to return him for their representative, although, having been expelled the House for another political libel, he was—so the Commons, by a stretch of power, had resolved—incapable of being elected into that Parliament.

4. **Publication of the Debates.**—In these struggles it was not, as of old, the House of Commons and the people against the King's ministers, but the House of Commons itself against the people. In 1771 the Commons got into another difficulty by attempting to enforce their right of preventing the publication of their debates,—a privilege which had been a necessary safeguard in bygone times when kings and ministers were in the habit of sending the

leaders of Opposition to the Tower. An attempt to arrest, by authority of the House, a citizen of London who had printed a report of the debates, brought on a dispute with the Lord Mayor *Brass Crosby*, who maintained that to lay hands on a citizen in the city, without the concurrence of one of its magistrates, was a violation of the charter of London. The Lord Mayor and one of the aldermen were sent to the Tower; but in the end the Commons were wise enough to let the matter drop, and the printers of the debates were no longer molested. By the publication of the debates, the people gained a better understanding of politics, while the Parliament and the government learned to pay more respect to public opinion.

5. **The American War of Independence.**—The severance of thirteen North-American colonies from the mother-country took place in this reign. The English government had attempted to tax these colonies to defray in part the expenses of protecting them; the colonists denied the right of the British Parliament, in which they were unrepresented, to tax them, and claimed the right of taxing themselves in their own Assemblies. The first measure of this kind was the *Stamp Act*, requiring all legal documents in the colonies to bear stamps—a scheme devised by Grenville, who was then at the head of the government. This act was repealed within a year, as the colonists were on the verge of rebellion; but on the proposal of *Lord North*, who became prime minister in 1770, a duty of threepence a pound laid on tea was retained simply as an assertion of the right of taxation. Upon this there was much disturbance, especially at *Boston* in Massachusetts, where at last a party of the townsmen threw overboard the cargoes of tea brought into their harbour. Severe measures being taken by way of punishment, the breach widened till in 1775 actual war began; and on the 4th July in the next year the revolted colonies, under the

name of the *United States of America*, declared themselves independent of Great Britain. The war was conducted on the British side with no great vigour or skill; and after the surrender in 1777 of the English *General Burgoyne* and his army, which had got surrounded at *Saratoga* by the American forces, France formed an alliance with the new States. Thenceforth Great Britain was at war with France as well as with the colonies. Pitt, now *Earl of Chatham*, had, with others of the ablest men in Parliament, protested against the taxation of the colonies, but he could not bear the idea of seeing the British Empire dismembered by France. Though very ill, he insisted on going down to the House of Lords to speak against yielding, as many of the Opposition had advised, at this crisis. Leaning on crutches, pale, worn, to all appearance a dying man, he faltered out his broken sentences—"shreds of unconnected eloquence": —"Shall a people," he exclaimed, "that seventeen years ago was the terror of the world, now stoop so low as to tell its ancient inveterate enemy: 'Take all we have; only give us peace'? . . . . . My Lords, any state is better than despair. Let us at least make one effort, and if we must fall, let us fall like men!" On again rising to address the Peers, he sank down in a fit; and, after lingering a few weeks, he died, May 11, 1778. Spain joined France in 1779; and within two years Great Britain found another foe in Holland. Moreover the Northern powers, Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, entered into a confederacy, known as the *Armed Neutrality*, to resist the system of maritime law upheld by Great Britain. Amongst other maritime rights, the English exercised that of seizing an enemy's property even when carried in neutral vessels; and their claim to visit and search merchant ships for such property or for contraband of war was the cause of much irritation on the part of neutrals. The Northern powers now

contended that free ships make free goods, that is, that an enemy's goods cannot be seized in a neutral ship. The crowning disaster was the surrender in 1781 of *Earl Cornwallis* and his army, which had been besieged and surrounded at *Yorktown* (in the Chesapeake Bay) by the French and American forces; and at last the King unwillingly consented to recognise the United States. Among the memorable events of this war are the French invasion in 1781 of Jersey, which was repelled by a gallant young officer, *Major Pierson*, who fell in the fight; *Admiral Sir George Rodney's* victory, April 12, 1782, in the West Indies over the French fleet, whose admiral, the *Count de Grasse*, was compelled to surrender his ship; and the famous defence of Gibraltar by *General Eliott* against the forces of France and Spain for three years and seven months. Peace was made in 1783, and Minorca and Florida were given back to Spain. In North America, *Canada*, *Nova Scotia*, *New Brunswick*, *Newfoundland*, and the *Hudson's Bay* country still remained part of the British Empire. Not long before the war broke out, the government had conciliated the French Canadians by granting full religious freedom to Roman Catholics in Canada, and the right of holding property under their own laws—a policy which was rewarded by their steadfast loyalty.

6. **The Lord George Gordon Riots.**—In June, 1780, there were great riots in London; the populace being stirred up by the half-crazed *Lord George Gordon*, in defence, as they said, of the Protestant cause, which was thought to be endangered by the repeal of some enactments against Roman Catholics. The uproar thus had its origin in religious intolerance, though a large number of the rioters were merely lawless men who were moved by love of mischief or greed of plunder to don the blue cockade of the "Protestants." For nearly a week the capital was in the power of a mob, who burned Newgate,

letting the prisoners loose, and sacked the houses of those against whom they had a grudge, notably that of the Lord Chief Justice Mansfield, whose fine library they destroyed. A brewer's man, mounted on a horse adorned with the chains of Newgate, led the rioters to attack the Bank of England, but without success. At one time London was blazing in thirteen places, but the stillness of the weather saved it from another Great Fire. In London, as in other large towns, there was then no efficient police. The police officers were "thief-takers," whose business was merely to catch criminals. For the purpose of keeping order, there were, besides the parish constables, only the "watchmen," who, carrying lanterns and poles, patrolled the streets at night, calling out the hour, and who were often old men not strong enough to protect themselves. Thus there was no efficient provision for checking the beginnings of disturbance; and in the riots of 1780 those in authority were loth to call in military force. At last however the troops were employed, and order was restored, though not before more than two hundred of the rioters had been shot down in the streets. Twenty-one were afterwards hanged; Lord George himself, who, however blameable for exciting the people, had had no part in the riots, was tried for high treason and acquitted.

7. **Pitt and Fox.**—After the American War, the leading statesmen of the day were *Charles James Fox*, and *William Pitt*, second son of Lord Chatham. Fox, who had taken a strong part in favour of the Americans, was a man of ability and eloquence, generous and a lover of freedom, but a gambler, and disliked by the King as the companion and supposed misleader of the Prince of Wales, *George Augustus Frederick*, who both in public and private life was everything that his father disapproved. Pitt, the rival of Fox, and his equal in talents and eloquence, became prime minister in 1783, when only

in his twenty-fifth year, and his power surpassed even that of his father. His political opponents scoffed at the prime minister's youth :—

> "A sight to make surrounding nations stare,—
> A kingdom trusted to a schoolboy's care."

Even in appearance and manners Pitt and Fox formed a striking contrast, for Fox was stout, gay, and sociable, while Pitt was long and lank, and in public somewhat cold and haughty, usually walking up the House of Commons without giving so much as a nod or a look to any man. In 1788 the King was afflicted with insanity, in consequence of which there arose a great dispute between Pitt and Fox about the authority to be given to the Prince of Wales as Regent, Fox asserting the Prince's right to full royal power, while Pitt successfully maintained that it was for the Parliament to appoint the Regent, and that they might restrict his power as they thought fit. But before the Bill conferring the Regency upon the Prince was passed the King recovered, to the great joy of the nation; for though his obstinacy of disposition had at one time made him unpopular, of late his kindly manners and simple life had endeared him to his subjects, while the Prince was thought so ill of that his rule was dreaded. The King however had fresh attacks, and at last, about 1811, he permanently lost his reason, from which time his reign may be accounted as at an end in all but name, the Prince of Wales ruling in his stead as Regent.

. 8. **War of the French Revolution.**—In 1789 there began in France the political troubles which led to the *Great Revolution*, in the course of which the King, *Louis XVI.*, was put to death, and a Republic was set up. Embittered by long-standing misrule and suffering, excited by dreams of regenerating the world and by the sudden acquisition of power, the revolutionary party swept away the old institutions of

their country, and while ruthlessly shedding the blood of those who did not side with them, they proclaimed the rise of a new order of things in which all men should be brethren, free and equal. In England there was at first sympathy with a nation struggling for liberty; but with the majority of Englishmen this feeling soon gave place to that of horror. Fox was throughout enthusiastic for the French, while his hitherto staunch friend *Edmund Burke* took the other side. Burke's famous essay entitled *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, which was published in 1790, did much to awaken fear and hatred of the new political principles. Long as he and Fox had been friends, their difference of opinion on the French Revolution made an irreparable breach between them. "Our friendship is at an end," Burke exclaimed in the House of Commons, and the warm-hearted Fox could scarcely reply for tears. Pitt wished to leave France to arrange its own affairs; but as the Republicans plainly showed their intention of spreading their doctrines and form of government by force of arms, and their violence and crimes increased the strength of the feeling against them among the upper and middle classes, it became difficult to maintain peace. The French armies defeated the Austrians in the Netherlands, annexed Savoy and Nice, and threatened Holland. Early in 1793 the beheading of King Louis, which excited great horror in England, widened the breach; and not long afterwards, the French government took the final step by declaring war against England, Holland, and Spain. *Admiral Earl Howe* on the 1st June, 1794, gained a hard-won victory over the French fleet in the Channel; and the English felt justly proud of the humanity their men had shown in saving the lives of drowning enemies, whose government had only five days before forbidden the giving of quarter to any Englishman or Hanoverian—an order which it is only fair to say was not carried

out. But the land operations were for the most part signal failures; an English expeditionary force was driven by the French out of Holland, Spain went over to France, and Prussia and other allies fell off; upon which Great Britain sought, but ineffectually, for peace. There was much discontent at home; food being dear, cries were raised for "Bread" and "Peace," while the government, frightened lest the revolutionary spirit should spread, became harsh and even arbitrary. The cost of the war was heavy, and the Bank of England was, in February, 1797, so drained that it stopped cash payments. Ireland was ready to revolt; Spain and Holland were both in alliance with France, and if their fleets could join in the Channel, they would together form a force stronger than any which England had at hand to oppose it. Two great victories however averted this last danger. On the 14th February, *Sir John Jervis*, with only fifteen sail of the line against the enemy's twenty-five, defeated the Spanish fleet off *Cape St. Vincent*. In this action two ships were boarded and taken by Commodore *Horatio Nelson*, the greatest of the many great sailors of Britain. He was the son of a clergyman in Norfolk, and though a delicate boy—too weak, his sailor uncle thought, "to rough it out at sea"—had early given tokens of the daring spirit which he displayed throughout his career, and which he inspired in those who served under him. "My seamen," he once said of his crew, "are now what British seamen ought to be—almost invincible. They really mind shot no more than peas." He was a master of the art of naval warfare, which was waged under conditions far different from those of our own day; for the heaviest guns of Nelson's time were but feeble compared to those of recent invention, and steamships and ironclads were unknown. "Heart of oak are our ships, heart of oak are our men," ran the popular song, and the navy

was proudly spoken of as "the wooden walls of Old England." But the trust of the nation in its navy received an alarming shock from the sudden mutiny of the Channel Fleet when ordered to sea. The sailors were not without grievances to excuse them. The Crown had a right to impress seamen, and the press-gangs, hated and feared in every port, carried men off by force to the King's ships, where the pay was small and the food bad. The sailors demanded an increase of wages to be secured to them by statute, and a pardon; and, after some delay, Lord Howe was sent to meet the mutineer leaders with the required Act and the King's pardon in his hand. On the 17th May the fleet put to sea. A second and more violent mutiny broke out in the ships at the Nore—"the Floating Republic," they styled themselves—but, as this did not extend to the other fleets, obedience was re-established in a few weeks, and the ringleaders were tried and hanged. The sailors made atonement by fighting valiantly in the battle won October 11 by *Admiral Adam Duncan*, off *Camperdown*, over *Admiral Van Winter* and the fleet of the Dutch, who at that time formed a Republic dependent on France, and whose vessels were intended to aid in an invasion of Ireland. The Dutch maintained the contest with a courage worthy of their old renown, Van Winter only striking his flag after losing all his masts and half his crew. Eight ships of the line and two of fifty-six guns were brought as prizes to England. This eventful year is also marked by the death of Burke, who to the last protested against the peace which Pitt had again vainly striven to bring about.

9. **Napoleon Buonaparte.**—For the next eighteen years the history of Europe is the history of *Napoleon Buonaparte*, who by his surpassing military genius, raised himself to be despotic ruler of France, and annexed or brought into vassalage all the western

part of the Continent of Europe. This great soldier was of Italian race, and a native of the island of Corsica. Having entered the French artillery, he had risen rapidly under the warlike rule of the Republic, and made himself a name by his conquests in Italy. In 1798 he undertook an expedition to Egypt, his head full of magnificent schemes of founding an Eastern Empire. On his passage he evaded Nelson and the English fleet, who were looking out for him. Nelson however found the French fleet lying in the Bay of Aboukir, and there defeated it in the great *Battle of the Nile*, August 1. Being wounded in the head, the English admiral was carried below, when the surgeon quitted a patient who was then under his hands to attend to him. "No!" said Nelson, "I will take my turn with my brave fellows." *Brueys*, the French admiral, died on the deck of his own ship, the *L'Orient*, which, after his fall, having taken fire, blew up. There was a brief lull in the fight—the firing was discontinued on both sides, and the first sound that broke the silence was the splash of the L'Orient's masts and yards, falling from the vast height to which they had been hurled. The battle went on till daybreak, only four French vessels escaping. For this victory Nelson was created a peer by the title of *Baron Nelson of the Nile*. From Egypt Buonaparte pushed into Syria, where *Acre* was gallantly held against him by the Turkish garrison, aided by an English officer, *Sir Sidney Smith*, who was then in the Gulf of Acre with a few vessels. About the same time *Tippoo Sahib*, *Sultan of Mysore* in India, an old foe of England, to whom the French gave hopes of aid, was vanquished and slain at the storming of *Seringapatam* by *General David Baird*. Foiled in the East, Buonaparte went home to make himself, under the title of "*First Consul*," the master of France. In December, 1800, Russia, Denmark, and Sweden again formed a confederacy to resist the

English system of maritime law. The death of the *Czar* or Emperor of Russia soon put an end to the war which arose out of these disputes, and during which Nelson took or destroyed the Danish fleet in the battle of *Copenhagen* or of the *Baltic*, April 2, 1801. The Danish fleet and batteries made such a stout resistance that Sir Hyde Parker, Nelson's superior officer, gave the signal for retreat. Nelson, venturing to disobey, put his glass to his blind eye, —for he had lost an eye in action—and saying that he "really did not see the signal," bade that his own signal for close action should be "nailed to the mast." In Egypt the battle of *Alexandria*, March 21, 1801, was gained by *Sir Ralph Abercromby* over the army which Buonaparte had left there, and before the end of the year the French evacuated that country. Wearied of war, Great Britain, which had once haughtily declined negotiation with Buonaparte, was now glad to conclude a peace at *Amiens*, 1802, although nearly all her conquests were thereby surrendered.

10. **War with Buonaparte.**—The peace was short-lived, a dispute about *Malta*, which had come into the possession of the English, and which they would not give up, leading to the renewal of war in 1803. Though Malta was the immediate subject of dispute, there were deeper causes of strife. Great Britain was alarmed and angered by the way in which Buonaparte went on enlarging his dominions and planning fresh conquests; and Buonaparte was enraged at any attempts to thwart him. The freedom too with which the English press, and more especially a French journal published in London, criticized his proceedings was a cause of irritation to his despotic mind. In retaliation for the seizure of two French vessels without, as he complained, a formal declaration of war—although war had been practically announced by the withdrawal of the ambassadors on both sides

—Buonaparte arrested all the English in France, 10,000 peaceful travellers, and detained them for the next eleven years. He seized Hanover, and collected troops and transports at Boulogne for the invasion of Great Britain. So confident was he, that he prepared a medal which was to commemorate the conquest he had not yet made. It bore the words, "Descent upon England," and "Struck at London in 1804." Great Britain made ready for the expected struggle, nearly 400,000 volunteers being quickly enrolled; and month after month it waited for the long-deferred invasion. At last, in August 1805, Buonaparte, who had now taken the title of *Emperor of the French*, was ready to cross the Channel. "If we are masters of the passage for twelve hours," he wrote, "England has lived." His scheme was that his fleet, on which he counted for the protection of his transports, should sail to the West Indies, so as to lure the British admirals away in pursuit, and then, having joined with that of Spain, should suddenly return and enter the Channel. But some of his ships were blockaded in the port of Brest by Admiral Cornwallis; and though a combined French and Spanish fleet, closely chased by Nelson, did sail to the West Indies, on its return it was encountered and defeated off Cape Finisterre by *Sir Robert Calder*. After this action it made for Spain, and was now lying in Cadiz, not daring to attempt to force the entrance of the Channel. Buonaparte's scheme had broken down, but he took care that people should have no time to scoff at its failure. Pitt, who had resigned office in 1801, but had since returned to power, had just formed a league or "coalition" with Austria and Russia. Against the Austrians accordingly Napoleon turned his arms, and swooping upon them before the Russians could join, he forced one of their armies to surrender (Oct. 20, 1805). Lord Nelson meanwhile, as soon as the French and Spanish fleets came out of Cadiz, attacked

them off *Cape Trafalgar*, Oct. 21, 1805, hoisting, before the action began, the famous signal, "*England expects that every man will do his duty.*" Proudly careless of his life, he stood on the deck of his ship, the *Victory*, with the stars of the different orders with which he had been invested glittering on his breast, thus making himself a mark for the enemy's riflemen. In the heat of the action he received his death-wound from a musket-ball, and though the victory was so complete as to put an end to all plans of invasion, the joy of Britain was clouded by sorrow for the loss of her hero. Another great man died early the next year—Pitt, whose heart had been broken by Buonaparte's victory over the Austrians and Russians near *Austerlitz* (Dec. 2, 1805), and the consequent ruin of all the hopes built upon the Coalition. It is told how Pitt, noticing, soon after these disasters, a map of Europe hanging upon the wall, said bitterly, "Roll up that map; it will not be wanted these ten years." The French conqueror now set himself to ruin British trade by a gigantic stretch of the law of blockade. A belligerent power has the right to *blockade* its enemy's ports, that is, to hinder all entry or exit, even neutral vessels being liable to seizure if they try to break through. But it is required that there shall be stationed at the place a sufficient force to make the blockade a reality. Great Britain had some time previously declared the coast from Brest to the Elbe in a state of blockade. In revenge, Buonaparte on the 21st Nov., 1806, issued the *Berlin Decree* (so named because it was sent forth from the conquered city of Berlin), which declared a blockade of the British Isles, forbade all correspondence or trade with them, and subjected all British goods to confiscation. This Decree he enforced, not only upon his own dominions, but upon all the Continental states that his power could reach. He did not really blockade a single harbour in the British Isles, for he had no force at

sea; what he attempted was in fact to blockade the Continent against British merchandize. Retaliatory orders were issued by the English government, and further orders by Buonaparte, till between them the whole foreign trade of neutrals was interdicted. Strengthened by a close alliance with the Emperor *Alexander* of Russia, Buonaparte hoped to constrain the whole Continent to make common cause against Great Britain. The British ministers having good reason to believe that the Danish fleet was about to be placed at Buonaparte's disposal for an invasion of England, despatched an expedition to demand from the Danes the surrender of their fleet; and on refusal, *Copenhagen* was bombarded till the vessels were given up (Sept. 1807). But though successful in balking Buonaparte's maritime plans, Great Britain was powerless to check him on land, where he added to his dominions and carved out subject kingdoms for his brothers and kinsmen at his pleasure.

11. **The Peninsular War.**—At last Britain found a soldier who could match Napoleon—*Sir Arthur Wellesley*, who had distinguished himself in India, where he had carried on a successful war with the *Mahratta* chiefs, over whom he gained the hard-fought battle of *Assye*, September 23, 1803. In 1808, Buonaparte having seized the kingdoms of *Portugal* and *Spain*, the Spanish patriots called upon England for help, which was promptly given; and thus began the *Peninsular War*, an obstinate struggle of six years, in which Wellesley, though not as yet opposed to Buonaparte himself, triumphed over many of his generals. Landing in Portugal, Wellesley on the 21st August defeated the French general *Junot* at *Vimeiro*, but his superior officer—for Wellesley had not the chief command—would not follow up the victory, and the enemy was allowed to evacuate Portugal under an arrangement known as the *Convention of Cintra*. This roused much wrath at home, where it was thought that Junot

had been let off too easily. *Sir John Moore* was then placed in command, and late in October he began his march into Spain. But the Spanish insurgents being defeated, and the French armies gathering round the English force, Moore had to retreat, in the depth of winter, through mountain passes, to the coast. Exhausted as it was, his army, having reached *Coruña*, repulsed the pursuing French, and was thus enabled to embark in safety, though with the loss of its leader, who, mortally wounded, yet lived long enough to know that his enemy was worsted (January 16, 1809). The sound of the distant cannon was still heard as, in the darkness of night, Moore was laid in a hastily dug grave on the ramparts of Coruña. In spite of this disaster, the government kept up the contest. The small force remaining in Portugal was strengthened, and Wellesley was now given the chief command. Driving the French from Portugal, he entered Spain, and on the 28th July defeated *Marshal Victor* in the battle of *Talavera*, an achievement for which he was raised to the peerage as *Viscount Wellington.* But the campaign as a whole failed, chiefly through the mismanagement of the Spanish generals; and Wellington had to fall back to the Portuguese frontier. He had many difficulties in carrying on the war; for, while the French generals took by force everything they needed, the British generals, allies of Spain, had no such resource, and were hard put to it for provisions. His perseverance however triumphed over every obstacle. To protect the peninsula of Lisbon, he constructed over the mountainous country between *Torres Vedras* and the Tagus strong lines of defence, which effectually stayed the progress of the French *Marshal Massena.* Portugal was successfully defended, and after a time, Wellington was again able to carry on offensive war in Spain. Among the celebrated actions of the war are the storming of *Ciudad Rodrigo* and *Badajoz* in 1812, and of *San Sebastian* in 1813; the

victory of *Salamanca*, July 22, 1812, and that of *Vitoria*, June 21, 1813. Step by step the French, under the command of *Marshal Soult*, were driven across the Pyrenees into their own country, where Soult still maintained the struggle. The last battle was fought near *Toulouse*, April 10, 1814, when Buonaparte had ceased to be the master of France. His efforts to put a stop to trade with Great Britain having embroiled him with Russia, he had in 1812 invaded that country with a mighty host, and, being vanquished more by the winter's cold than by the sword, had brought but a miserable remnant back. Germany, long crushed under his feet, had then begun to rise up. "A year ago," said Buonaparte in 1813, "all Europe was marching with us; now all Europe is marching against us." Soon after the British, Spanish, and Portuguese had made their way into France through the Pyrenees, the allied Russians, Prussians, and Austrians invaded it from the east; and, ten days before the battle of Toulouse, the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia had entered Paris. Buonaparte abdicated, and was allowed to hold the sovereignty of the little isle of *Elba*; while the brother of the executed King Louis was raised to the French throne as *Louis XVIII.*

12. **Battle of Waterloo.**—Not a year had passed when Buonaparte returned to France, where he was again received as ruler. His old soldiers rallied round him; while the Allied Powers, whose representatives were then sitting at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe, declared him an outlaw, and made ready for war, Great Britain granting large subsidies to her allies, whose finances were so exhausted that without such assistance they would have been unable to move. The English commander-in-chief, now *Duke of Wellington*, and the Prussian general *Blücher* gathered their forces together in the Netherlands. Buonaparte, designing to interpose between the British

and Prussian armies, and to overthrow them separately, crossed the frontier to attack them on their own ground. After severe engagements between the English and French at *Quatre Bras*, and the French and Prussians at *Ligny*, June 16, 1815, Wellington and Buonaparte joined battle near *Waterloo*, June 18. The day was stubbornly contested, the British standing with the utmost firmness for more than five hours, until the Prussians, as they had promised, came up to their support. The Imperial Guard, the flower of Buonaparte's army, then advancing to the charge against the British, was driven back; upon this, Buonaparte, seeing that all was lost, fled, and the victory was complete. The British and Prussians entered Paris; while Buonaparte, finding it impossible to carry out his design of escaping to the United States, surrendered himself on board the British man-of-war *Bellerophon*, and was sent by the Allied Sovereigns captive to the island of *St. Helena*, a British possession, where he ended his days, May 5, 1821. By the *Treaty of Paris*, Nov. 20, 1815, made between the Allies and the government of Louis XVIII., the territory of France was reduced nearly to its limits in 1790, all Buonaparte's conquests and most of those of the Revolutionary government being taken away. The conquests which were kept by Great Britain at the end of these wars were the *Cape of Good Hope*, which had been taken from the Dutch, the Dutch possessions in *Ceylon*, as well as *Berbice* and other Dutch settlements in Guiana; the islands of *Mauritius* (also called the *Isle of France*), and of the *Seychelles*, and some other islands in the Indian Ocean taken from the French; some West Indian islands, taken from the French or the Spaniards; and in Europe, the islands of *Malta* and *Heligoland*. Malta, which had belonged to the military brotherhood of the *Knights of St. John*, had in 1798 been acquired by France, but had been taken by the

British forces in 1800; Heligoland had been a Danish possession.

13. **War with the United States. Bombardment of Algiers.**—In 1812 the United States of America, being irritated at the damage to their trade arising out of the Orders issued in retaliation for the Berlin Decree, and disputing the claim to impress British subjects found on board American vessels, declared war against Great Britain. This contest, in which the United States attempted, though without success, to conquer Canada, was brought to an end early in 1815. At sea the English at first were worsted in a succession of combats between single vessels. Waging war in every quarter of the globe at once, they could not man their vessels with picked crews like those of the Americans, who had only one contest on their hands; moreover the American frigates, as a class, were larger and carried heavier guns than the frigates of the British navy, and in gunnery their men were more carefully trained. The English felt defeat on their favourite element as a sore disgrace, and the relief was great when Captain Broke of the British frigate *Shannon* challenged the United States frigate *Chesapeake* to an encounter off Boston, and, the vessels being of equal strength, came off conqueror (June 1, 1813). The last military operation of this reign was the English and Dutch bombardment in 1816 of *Algiers*, whose *Dey* or prince was thereby compelled to set free nearly two thousand Christian slaves.

14. **Home Affairs.**—The National Debt had been more than trebled by the war; and as years of strife had impoverished all Europe, there was now scarcely any foreign market for British manufactures, and little demand for labour at home. With the idea of encouraging and protecting home agriculture, a *corn law* was passed in 1815, practically prohibiting the importation of foreign wheat until British wheat should have risen

to 80*s.* the quarter. The restricting the supply of foreign corn was no new thing; but this Act carried it further than it had ever gone of late years. Disturbances and riots, and the formation of political societies which advocated sweeping reforms and sometimes plotted revolution, led to the adoption of stringent provisions for repressing sedition. In 1816 came a season of scarcity, and with wheat rising to famine prices, and a surplus of labour, the distress and discontent of the people were great. The "*Luddites,*" who were bands of workmen leagued to break the stocking and lace frames which interfered with their employment, had first arisen in 1812, and having never been thoroughly put down, now revived with new violence. In 1819 a large open-air meeting in St. Peter's Field, Manchester, held with a view to obtaining a reform of Parliament, was put down by military force with bloodshed. This affray has since been commonly known as the "*Manchester Massacre.*" The blind and aged George III. died, January 29, 1820, at Windsor Castle, leaving six sons and five daughters. His eldest son, the Prince Regent, who had ruled for the last nine years, had only one child, *Princess Charlotte Augusta*, who in 1816 married *Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg*, and died the next year.

15. **The Royal Marriage Act.**—In 1772 was passed the *Royal Marriage Act*, by which the descendants of George II. (other than the issue of princesses married into foreign families) are incapacitated from marrying under the age of twenty-five without the consent of the sovereign. After that age, marriage may be contracted upon due notice, unless both Houses of Parliament signify their disapprobation. The King's anger against his brothers, *William Henry, Duke of Gloucester*, and *Henry Frederick, Duke of Cumberland*, who had both made marriages which displeased him, led to this measure.

16. **Irish Affairs.**—In 1782 *Ireland* obtained the independence of its Parliament, which had formerly been subordinate to that of England, and though still subject to the King, thus ceased to be dependent upon Great Britain. *Henry Grattan*, a barrister and a member of the Irish House of Commons, made himself famous by the eloquence which he displayed in advocating the legislative independence of his native country. During the War of the French Revolution, the *United Irishmen*, an association which had originally been formed with a view to obtaining a reform of the Irish legislature, entered into treasonable correspondence with France, from which more than one expedition was sent to their aid. Of these the most formidable, under *General Hoche*, was scattered by a tempest in 1796; another in 1798 made its way into Longford, where it was constrained to surrender, while the United Irishmen, who rose in rebellion, and were routed at *Vinegar Hill* in Wexford, were put down with cruel severities. Of the chiefs of the conspiracy, *Lord Edward Fitzgerald* was seized before the outbreak, and died of wounds received while defending himself from arrest; *Wolfe Tone*, who was captured on board of one of the vessels of a French squadron, being condemned to the gallows, killed himself in prison. After the insurrection had been quelled, Ireland was, on the 1st January, 1801, united to Great Britain, and thenceforth sent her representatives to the British Parliament. The cross of the patron saint of Ireland, St. Patrick, was at the same time added to those of St. George and St. Andrew on the national flag. It was in this year, 1801, that the title of "King of France" in the style of the Crown was at last dropped.

17. **Indian Affairs. Discoveries and Improvements.**—During the long reign of George III. there were many wars in India; *Hyder Ali, Rajah of Mysore*, his son and successor *Tippoo*, and the Mahratta chiefs *Scindia* and *Holkar*, being among our most

formidable enemies. *Warren Hastings*, who in 1774 became the first Governor-General of India, ranks as one of the greatest of English statesmen who have borne rule in the East; and to his abilities it was owing that at the close of the American War of Independence, Great Britain, whilst losing elsewhere, had increased her power in India. Hastings was in 1787 impeached by the Commons on charges of injustice, oppression, and extortion; but after a trial by the House of Lords, which dragged on for seven years, he was acquitted. Lord Cornwallis, who became Governor-General in 1786, waged a successful war with Tippoo Sahib; and the British dominion was still further strengthened and extended under the governorship of the *Marquess Wellesley*, brother of the Duke of Wellington, and that of the *Marquess of Hastings*. The whole of *Ceylon* was also in 1815 brought under British rule. New openings for colonization were found by *Captain James Cook*, a Yorkshireman, who, beginning his sea life as apprentice in a collier, at the breaking out of war between France and England in 1755 entered the King's service. In 1768, being placed in command of the *Endeavour*, which was fitted out for the South Seas for the purpose of making astronomical observations, he started on the first of his famous voyages of discovery. In the course of these he explored the *Society Islands*, so named by him in honour of the Royal Society, at whose instance he had been sent out; he sailed round *New Zealand*, which had been unvisited by Europeans since its discovery by the Dutchman *Abel Tasman* in 1642; and he surveyed the eastern coast of *New Holland* or *Australia*, naming that part *New South Wales*, from its likeness to the coast of South Wales at home. The name of *Endeavour Bay* in New South Wales preserves the memory of Cook's vessel. Cook also discovered and named *New Caledonia*, an island of which the French government was allowed to

take possession in 1853 for the purposes of a penal settlement. On his third voyage, in 1779, when the great navigator was at the *Sandwich Islands*, a group which he had discovered and named after the Earl of Sandwich who was then at the head of the Admiralty, he was slain in a sudden fray with the natives. Among his other merits, Cook was distinguished by the justice and fairness of his dealings with the tribes he visited, and by his care and success in preserving his crews from that scourge of seamen, the scurvy. Some years after his death, New South Wales was colonized as a place of transportation for criminals. Another penal settlement was made about 1804 in *Van Diemen's Land*, which had been discovered and named by Tasman. In later days, when Van Diemen's Land had become the seat of a thriving free settlement, its name, which was disliked on account of its association with convicts, was changed to that of *Tasmania*. New Zealand also began to be colonized by English settlers from New South Wales in the early part of the nineteenth century. Not less important were the triumphs of science and enterprise at home. *Dr. Edward Jenner*, whose name is ever to be remembered with gratitude, was the inventor of *vaccination* as a preventive of small-pox, his first experiment being made in 1796. Great advances were made in astronomy and chemistry, and vast improvements were effected in the arts of industry, which have raised Britain to her present position as a manufacturing country. *Navigable canals* had begun to be constructed. Early in the reign of George III. *James Brindley* made the famous canal from Worsley to Manchester, a work of which the engineering difficulties were thought so great that Brindley and his employer *Francis Egerton, Duke of Bridgewater*, were looked on as madmen for engaging in it. The Duke was the owner of rich coal-mines at Worsley, about seven miles from Manchester, but the coal had

hitherto lain useless from the difficulty and expense of land carriage. Brindley, being entrusted with the task of cutting a canal from Worsley, determined to do without locks, and to make it of uniform level throughout. At one point he proposed to carry it over the Irwell by an aqueduct of thirty-nine feet above the surface of the stream. This was so bold a design that another engineer was called in to give his opinion. The new-comer shook his head: "he had often," he said, "heard of castles in the air, but never before was shown where any of them were to be erected." But the Duke stood by his own engineer, and the aqueduct was successfully constructed. Smeaton, already famous as the builder of the Eddystone lighthouse, laid out in 1767 the line of the great canal connecting the Forth and Clyde. The manufacture of *pottery* was raised to a flourishing condition by *Josiah Wedgwood*, a Staffordshire man; and that of *iron*, by *Dr. Roebuck's* process of smelting with pit-coal instead of charcoal. Machinery was applied to spin and weave cotton, the spinning frame being first made in 1768 by *Richard Arkwright*, originally a barber of Bolton. Arkwright, who was afterwards knighted, made a large fortune by his works. But the crowning achievement of the age was that of the Scotsman *James Watt*, who, though not actually the inventor of the *steam-engine*, so improved it as to place a new power in the hands of mankind. *Steamboats* came into use about 1812. The first steamboat in actual working use in Great Britain was the "*Comet*," which was built after the design of *Henry Bell* of Glasgow, and plied between that town and Helensburgh at the rate of about five miles an hour. Iron began to be used instead of wood as the material of ships, the first iron steam-vessel that went to sea being built about 1820. Gas was turned to account as a means of giving light, Pall Mall being first lighted with it in 1807.

18. **Reforms.**—Among the notable men of this reign must be named some who spent their lives in endeavouring to remedy the evils and abuses around them. *John Howard* is famous for his labours in the reform of prisons. Becoming in 1773 High Sheriff of Bedfordshire, he was shocked by the condition in which he found the gaols, and he thereupon devoted himself to the task of examining into their state throughout the country, and of calling the attention of Parliament to them. Such inquiries were undertaken at no small hazard; for the prisons of the time, without order or discipline, with their inmates left at the mercy of hard and extortionate gaolers, were dens so foul and infected that to enter them was risk of life. *Thomas Clarkson* and *William Wilberforce* are honoured as the leaders of the party which did away with the slave-trade. Although it had been decided in 1772 by the Court of King's Bench at Westminster that slavery could not legally exist in England, her colonies, like those of other nations, continued to employ the labour of negro-slaves, who were imported in vast numbers from Africa. Clarkson was the first who effectually stirred up public feeling against this cruel traffic, which the society of Quakers had already denounced. He and his associates were seconded in Parliament by Wilberforce, the son of a Hull merchant, and, at last, after agitating the matter for nearly twenty years, they succeeded in 1807 in obtaining the passing of an Act abolishing the slave-trade. Fox, although he did not live to see the measure carried through Parliament, did much towards bringing it about. *Sir Samuel Romilly* is distinguished for his efforts to mitigate the severity of the criminal law; and by his exertions, he succeeded in doing away with the punishment of death in the case of many small offences against property.

19. **Literature.—End of Eighteenth Century.**—In the early years of George III., *Dr. Samuel*

Johnson, the compiler of the well-known English Dictionary, bore sway as a kind of literary sovereign, although as an author he belongs equally to the preceding reign. It was in 1737 that he first came to London with his pupil Garrick, afterwards famous as an actor, to seek his fortune by writing, which was then but an ill-paid trade. After many years of hardship, his fame became established. George III., soon after his accession, granted him a pension, and Johnson, reverenced by the new generation, who relied implicitly on his judgment and admired his sonorous, balanced, and Latinized style, spent the rest of his life in comfort. He died in 1784. His biography, written by his devoted worshipper *James Boswell*, who noted his every word and action, has done almost as much to perpetuate his fame as any of his own works in verse or prose. *Horace Walpole*, youngest son of Sir Robert, and author of the wild romance of the *Castle of Otranto*, showed his power chiefly in his letters, which extend over the period from 1735 to 1797, and by their liveliness and ease, their fund of gossip and anecdote, have won him the praise of being "the best letter-writer in the English language." *Oliver Goldsmith*, an idle, good-natured, and improvident man, ever in difficulties, was the author of a novel, *The Vicar of Wakefield*, a poem, *The Deserted Village*, and a comedy, *She Stoops to Conquer*, which have all obtained lasting fame. In 1769, during the struggle between the House of Commons and Wilkes, began to appear the famous *Letters of Junius*, published in the *Public Advertiser*, a London newspaper. These were a series of powerful and savage attacks, directed against most men in high place, but more especially against the then prime minister, the Duke of Grafton, and his friends. "Junius"—for so the letters were signed—concealed himself so well that it has never been known for certain who he was. *Adam Smith*, a Scotsman, born at Kirkcaldy in 1723,

and for many years Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow, published in 1776 his great work on political economy, entitled *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations.* He was the founder of the modern school of political economy. Another Scotsman, *William Robertson*, was the author of a *History of Scotland*, comprising the reigns of Mary and of James VI. till his accession to the crown of England, which was published in 1759. Some years afterwards followed his *History of the Reign of the Emperor Charles V.*, which is considered his best work. *Edward Gibbon*, the historian of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, is distinguished by the wide range of his learning, by his coldly majestic style, and by his power of grave and quiet sarcasm, which, being himself an unbeliever in Christianity, he particularly delighted in directing against the early professors of the faith. The *Decline and Fall* is probably the greatest historical work in the English language. The drama was enlivened by the brilliant comedies of the *Rivals* and the *School for Scandal*, which were written by *Richard Brinsley Sheridan*. Having made a name as a dramatist and a wit, Sheridan turned his mind to politics, and, attaching himself to Fox, Burke, and the other Opposition leaders, he became one of the most noted speakers in the House of Commons. *Frances Burney*, the daughter of an eminent musical composer, rose to fame at the age of twenty-five by the publication in 1778 of the *History of Evelina*, which was read and praised even by men who did not often condescend to turn over a novel. Queen Charlotte testified her admiration of the novelist by making her one of the keepers of her robes; but, though the most loyal of subjects, Miss Burney found the life of a waiting-woman not at all to her taste. She poured out the story of her woes in the Diary which she kept during her five years' service in the dull, formal

court of George III. *Ann Radcliffe* wrote the *Mysteries of Udolpho*, which long thrilled novel-readers with its romantic horrors, and which may be accounted the best specimen of a style of fiction which was in its time much admired. *Thomas Day*, a benevolent and eccentric man, is best remembered by his *History of Sandford and Merton*, one of the most popular of children's books. In this may be traced the influence of the French school of philosophers who paved the way for the Revolution—their revolt against the artificial manners of fashionable society, their doctrine of the equality of mankind, and their tendency to ascribe all the follies and sins of men to bad education. In poetry there is for some time little to note except the verse of Goldsmith; but in the latter part of the century there arose a poet who had the vigour to discard the monotonous and mannered style which had been in vogue ever since the days of Pope. This was *William Cowper*, whose poems are marked by deep religious feeling, by a genuine love of nature, and by a sarcastic power hardly to be looked for in one who was morbidly sensitive, and at times afflicted with melancholy madness. He died in 1800. *Robert Burns*, an Ayrshire farmer, who wrote in his native dialect of English, is especially the poet of the Scottish people; and his war-song, "Scots, wha hae wi' Wallace bled," an imaginary address of Robert Bruce to his army before the battle of Bannockburn, has become the national poem of his country.

20. **Early Nineteenth Century Literature.**—The works of Cowper and Burns were the first symptoms of that awakening of the spirit of poetry which took place about the end of the eighteenth century. The times were such as make poets; for the great upheaving of the French Revolution, which brought forth as it were a new world, and the long struggle with Napoleon inspired new ideas of liberty

and fresh ardour of patriotism. The opinions of the *Jacobins*, as the extreme revolutionists in France were called, took strong hold of two young poets, *Robert Southey* and his great companion *Samuel Taylor Coleridge*, who however both sobered down in after-life. Southey, whose fierce republicanism had once afforded subjects for the witty parodies of *Hookham Frere* and *George Canning* in the *Anti-Jacobin*, turned into a somewhat bigoted Tory. Of his many poems, perhaps the best is the metrical romance of *Thalaba the Destroyer*, published in 1802. In prose he was the author of a *Life of Nelson*, which has been said to be "beyond all doubt, the most perfect and the most delightful of his works." Coleridge excelled in throwing a weird and mysterious air over his poems, of which the most characteristic are the *Ancient Mariner* and the fragment called *Christabel*. Both Southey and Coleridge belonged to what was called the *Lake School* of poetry, of which *William Wordsworth* was the head. The circumstance of these three friends living in the neighbourhood of the lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland gave rise to the name, which was peculiarly applicable to Wordsworth from the minuteness and truth with which he described the scenery and people of his native North. As his theory and style of poetry altogether differed from those of any writer before him, and were not of a kind to be popular, Wordsworth had to encounter much derision before his position as a man of genius was established. *Thomas Campbell*, whose works breathe a spirit of patriotism and freedom, is chiefly remembered by his shorter poems, such as the spirited songs of *Ye Mariners of England*, written in expectation of war with Denmark, and the *Battle of the Baltic*, commemorating Nelson's attack on Copenhagen in 1801. *Sir Walter Scott* was long the most popular poet of his day, and when he lost that position, he became the most popular novelist. In 1805 he surprised the

world by the wild warlike vigour of the *Lay of the Last Minstrel*, a tale of warfare on the Scottish Border in the sixteenth century. This was followed up by other metrical romances of Scottish and English chivalry. More perhaps was done by Scott than by any one else to call forth that appreciation of the literature, art, feelings, and manners of the Teutonic and Celtic races which was gradually displacing the exclusive admiration of Greek and Roman antiquity. He turned to prose when he saw that his poetical renown was waning before that of a younger rival. This was *George Gordon, Lord Byron*, whose first cantos of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*, published in 1812, had such immediate success that, as he himself said, he woke one morning and found himself famous. Byron led a wild and unhappy life, and, splendid as his poems are, they are marred by moral faults which increased with his years. In 1824, when only thirty-six years of age, he died at Mesolongi, whither he had gone to fight for the Greek patriots against the Turks. Two years earlier, his friend *Percy Bysshe Shelley*, whose religious and social opinions had made him so unpopular that he left England, had been drowned in the Mediterranean. Shelley has been called "the Poet of Poets," because his writings, though not suited to ordinary minds, can be appreciated by those who are themselves poets. In prose the most notable works of the time were Scott's *Waverley Novels*, by which he won a still higher place than that to which he had attained as a poet. The first of the set, *Waverley*, a tale of the adventures of an English gentleman who joins the Young Chevalier's army, was published anonymously in 1814, and was quickly followed by a host of other novels and romances. Scott's aim was, as he has told us, to do for his own country what *Maria Edgeworth* had already done for Ireland—"something which might introduce her natives to those of the sister kingdom

in a more favourable light than they had been placed hitherto." Maria Edgeworth, whose Irish characters thus roused the emulation of Scott, was a novelist of repute, but to the present generation she is best known by her books for children. Another novelist, of whom, different as her line was from his own, Scott spoke with generous admiration, was *Jane Austen*, a Hampshire clergyman's daughter, who represented the quiet uneventful life of the English lesser gentry with exquisite truth and humour.

21. **Painting.**—Nothing has hitherto been said about painting, because England was behindhand in the art, and it was not until the time of the Georges that a native school was formed. The most famous names in the early history of painting in England are those of foreigners. *Hans Holbein*, whose flattering portrait of Anne of Cleves had a share in leading Henry VIII. to send for her as his bride, was a German. *Sir Anthony Vandyck*, the great artist who has preserved for us the features of Charles I. and his nobles, was a native of Antwerp. The *Vandeveldes*, father and son, both noted sea-painters, belonged to Holland, from which country the elder one was invited by Charles II. *Sir Peter Lely* and *Sir Godfrey Kneller*, the first of whom portrayed the beauties of the court of Charles II., the other, those of the court of William III., were Germans. There were indeed some good native painters, such as *William Dobson*, who has been called the English Vandyck; *Robert Walker*, who painted Cromwell and most of his officers; and *Samuel Cooper*, a fine miniature-painter of the days of the Commonwealth and Charles II. But after these, portraiture, and indeed all branches of painting, went down, until the rise of *William Hogarth*, who flourished under George II. He was the son-in-law of *Sir James Thornhill*, a painter much in request during the reigns of Anne and George I. for the decoration of palaces

and public buildings, whose best works adorn the dome of St. Paul's and the hall of Greenwich Hospital. Hogarth struck out a style of his own, painting satirical scenes, sometimes humorous, sometimes gloomy and tragic; and his pictures, drawn from the life of all classes, are records of the costume and the manners of his age. In 1768, four years after Hogarth's death, was founded the *Royal Academy*, of which *Sir Joshua Reynolds*, the great portrait-painter of England, was the first president. Reynolds is accounted the founder of the English School of painting. Other noted artists of the time are *Richard Wilson*, a painter of landscape, and *Thomas Gainsborough*, of landscape and portraits. Among the many pictures of *Benjamin West*, who was born in Pennsylvania, then a British colony, and who became the favourite artist of George III., one of the most celebrated is the *Death of General Wolfe*. In this, instead of representing the figures in ancient Greek or Roman costume, as was then the fashion with painters, West had the good sense to depict them in dresses such as they actually wore. The successor, though not the equal, of Reynolds in portraiture was *Sir Thomas Lawrence*, who from the early part of the nineteenth century until his death in 1830, possessed the public favour. *Sir David Wilkie*, a Scotsman, drew admirable scenes of village and farmhouse life; and the great landscape painter *Joseph Mallord William Turner* was in the middle of his career at the end of the reign of George III. Turner, though he afterwards gave his attention chiefly to oil painting, began as a water-colour painter; indeed the English School of water-colour painting owes its origin to him and his friend and fellow-student *Thomas Girtin*, who formed for themselves a new method and style in this art. Among water-colourists, *Samuel Prout*, who died in 1852, excelled in delineating mediæval architecture and the streets and market-places of foreign towns, while

David Cox is especially famed for stormy landscape scenes. *Thomas Bewick*, a Northumbrian, is famous as the reviver of wood engraving, and his beautiful prints of beasts, birds, and rural scenes were designed as well as executed by himself. *John Flaxman*, who died in 1826, is considered the greatest of English sculptors.

CHAPTER XLII.

GEORGE IV.

George IV.; Cato Street Conspiracy (1)—*Queen Caroline* (2)—*foreign affairs; battle of Navarino* (3)—*Free trade* (4)—"*Catholic Emancipation*" (5)—*death of George IV.; Metropolitan Police Force; Burmese War* (6).

1. **George IV., 1820-1830.**—Within a month after the accession of the Prince Regent as *George IV.*, discovery was made of a plot for assassinating the King's ministers at a Cabinet dinner. The meeting-place of the conspirators was a loft in Cato Street in London, and their ringleader was one *Arthur Thistlewood*, whose object, so he averred, was to revenge the "Manchester Massacre." Being convicted of treason, Thistlewood and four accomplices were hanged.

2. **Queen Caroline.**—In 1795, George, under pressure from his father, and tempted by the prospect of payment of his debts, had married his cousin, *Caroline, Princess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel*, an indiscreet and coarse-mannered woman, from whom he soon separated. Not long after his accession, a Bill of Pains and Penalties was brought into Parliament by the ministry to degrade and divorce the Queen on charges of misconduct. After an examination of witnesses before the House of Lords, the bill was finally dropped, to the delight of the populace, who were all on the Queen's side, believing her to have

been wronged and persecuted. But the King was still determined to resist her claim to be crowned as his consort, and in this he was supported by the Privy Council. The Queen, attempting at least to be present at her husband's coronation, appeared early on the morning of the ceremony before the doors of Westminster Abbey, but was everywhere refused admission. Not long after this humiliation she fell sick, and died August 7, 1821.

3. **Foreign Affairs.**—Although in France the old line of Kings had been restored, the work of the French Revolution was far from being undone. The French doctrines of "liberty, equality, and fraternity" had taught oppressed or dissatisfied men of all countries to draw together as one party; and therefore princes and all in authority became disposed to make common cause against the malcontent. So long as the war lasted, Great Britain was of necessity the close friend of the old governments of the Continent; but after the peace her foreign policy began to diverge from that of her allies, the Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King of Prussia. These, having joined together in the "*Holy Alliance*," made themselves the opponents of revolution, and of reform won by revolution, throughout Europe; while England would not undertake to interfere in the internal affairs of other states. The "Holy Alliance" was so named because the three sovereigns had put forth a declaration that they would be guided solely by the precepts of the Christian religion; but among "*Liberals*,"—as those who sympathized with insurrection abroad, or wished for changes at home, had begun to call themselves—it became a byword for a league of tyrants. The alteration in the foreign policy of Great Britain was mainly brought about by *George Canning*, who in 1822 became Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. When the Spanish colonies in South America had separated themselves from Spain, Canning prevailed on the British Government to

recognise them as independent States—a measure which was looked upon as a great step in the direction of Liberalism. Later on, Canning became prime minister, in which position his last act was to settle a treaty between Great Britain, France, and Russia, with the view of putting a stop to the cruel warfare carried on by the Turks in Greece, which had risen against their yoke. The hope that the object of the treaty would be attained without fighting was not realized, for the Allied fleets and those of the Turks and Egyptians came unexpectedly to a battle in the port of *Navarino* (October 20, 1827), where the Turkish fleet was in great part destroyed.

4. **Free Trade.**—A marked change was also coming over commercial policy. The general belief had hitherto been that trade ought to be controlled and directed by law, so as to force it into those channels which were thought most advantageous to the nation or to particular classes who were strong enough to secure their own interests. Thus the importation of foreign wrought silks was forbidden, and heavy duties were laid on raw and thrown silk, with the idea of promoting the silk manufacture at home. In the wool-trade there was a constant struggle between the sheep-owners, who wished to keep out foreign wool and to export their own, and the manufacturers, who wanted free import, and prohibition of exports, so as to keep the woollen manufacture in their own hands. Then there were *Navigation Acts*, intended to promote the employment of British merchant-ships, and as much as possible to keep out foreign ships. There was however a growing belief in the advantage of *Free trade*—that is, of leaving trade to take its natural course unchecked,—and much was done towards establishing such a system by *William Huskisson*, who in 1823 became President of the Board of Trade. In that year he obtained the passing of an Act for enabling the King in Council

to place the shipping of foreign states on the same footing with British shipping, provided that similar privileges were given to British ships in the ports of such states. He next succeeded in doing away with the prohibitions on the importation of silk manufactures, and in reducing the duties on silk. The prohibitions on the exportation of wool were also discontinued, and the duties on its importation were reduced. In 1828, when Huskisson was Secretary of State for the Colonies, a corn law was passed, which allowed free importation of grain, upon payment of duties decreasing as the price rose, and increasing as it fell.

5. **"Catholic Emancipation."**—In 1828 an Act was passed repealing so much of the Corporation and Test Acts as required persons taking office to communicate according to the rites of the Church of England. This was a concession to the Protestant Dissenters, and it was soon followed up by the chief measure of this reign, the "*Catholic Emancipation Act.*" Till the reign of George III., Roman Catholics remained subject to penal laws of such severity that the great lawyer Blackstone could find no better defence for them than that they were seldom put in force. By later statutes many of these restrictions and penalties were removed from those Roman Catholics who would take a certain prescribed oath, and at last, in 1817, all grades in the army and navy were practically opened to them. From both Houses of Parliament, and from certain offices, franchises, and civil rights, they were still shut out by the oath of supremacy, and by the declarations required against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. On the Union with Ireland, Pitt virtually pledged himself to remove these disabilities; but as George III. made it a point of conscience to refuse to entertain such a measure, nothing was done during that King's reign. Canning likewise was known to be in

favour of the "emancipation" of the Roman Catholics; but their hopes were cast down by his death in 1827, and early in the following year the Duke of Wellington and *Mr.* (afterwards *Sir Robert*) *Peel*, who were both opposed to the Roman Catholic claims, became the chief advisers of the Crown. In Ireland a "*Catholic Association*" had been formed, which busied itself in stirring up public opinion on this subject. Its leader was *Daniel O'Connell*, a Roman Catholic barrister of great eloquence and influence with his countrymen. The power of the Association was shown in 1828 by the election of O'Connell to a seat in Parliament. The ministry now felt it necessary to bring in a bill for admitting Roman Catholics to Parliament, to all civil and military offices and places of trust or profit under the Crown (except those of Regent, Lord Chancellor in Great Britain and Ireland, and Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and a few others), and to corporate offices, upon their taking an oath to support the existing institutions of the State, and not to injure those of the Church. The Duke of Wellington avowed in the House of Lords that he had brought forward this measure in order to avert civil war. He knew, he said, what civil war was, and he would sacrifice anything to avoid even one month of such strife in his own country. Bitter were the reproaches that the extreme Tories cast upon the Duke and his colleague Peel for thus yielding. The *Earl of Winchilsea* in particular published a letter in which he used expressions reflecting so unfavourably upon Wellington's honour as a statesman that, according to the custom of the time, a duel took place between the two. The Duke fired and missed, and the Earl discharged his pistol in the air The Bill was passed through Parliament, and on the 13th April, 1829, received the royal assent.

6. **Death of George IV.**—King George IV., who passed the latter years of his life in seclusion, died at

Windsor Castle, June 26, 1830. During his reign the laws relating to the trial and punishment of offences were consolidated and amended, the penalties being generally made less severe. The *Metropolitan Police Force*, which greatly increased the security of London, was established in 1829 by Peel, who was at that time Secretary of State for Home Affairs. For about two years, from 1824 to 1826, the English in India were at war with their neighbours the *Burmese*, each side having gradually extended their possessions till they met. The war ended successfully for the British, who gained some territory thereby. George IV. was succeeded by his brother *William Henry, Duke of Clarence.*

CHAPTER XLIII.

WILLIAM IV.

William IV.; the Reform Bill; new party names (1)—*Abolition of Slavery* (2)—*death of King William; Hanover separated from Great Britain* (3)—*amendment of the Poor Law; reform of Municipal Corporations; East India Company* (4)—*burning of the Houses of Parliament* (5)—*railways; Stephenson* (6).

1. **William IV., 1830–1837. The Reform Bill.**—*William, Duke of Clarence*, who had passed his early life in the navy, came to the throne in troublous times. Soon after his accession, revolutions in France and the Netherlands disquieted Europe; while at home rick-burning and machine-breaking spread alarm through the southern agricultural counties, and the great question of *Parliamentary Reform* was pressing for immediate consideration. The system of *parliamentary representation* had long stood in need of reform. New towns had sprung up, but they

were unrepresented; ancient but decayed boroughs, containing perhaps seven, six, or even one elector, still returned members. Such was the borough of Gatton, where there were but seven householders to exercise the right of voting; and that of Old Sarum, where a single elector, the keeper of an alehouse, went through the form of choosing two members to represent himself in Parliament. The property in such boroughs was, in the majority of instances, in the hands of some one large owner, by whom the elections were controlled, and whose influence and nomination were notoriously bought and sold; electoral rights were various, and in many towns a small corporation, open to control and corruption, exclusively possessed them. Thus at Bath, where the inhabitants were numerous, only the mayor, aldermen, and common-councilmen had votes; at Buckingham, only the bailiff and twelve burgesses. These and such as these were the *close* or *rotten* boroughs, as they were popularly termed. One great peer had eleven members in the House of Commons—that is to say, there were six or more boroughs which sent up as their representatives eleven men of his choice. "What right," asked Sydney Smith, the wit of the Liberal party, "has this lord or that marquess to buy ten seats in Parliament in the shape of boroughs, and then to make laws to govern me?" As early as the Civil Wars, the defects of the representative system had been perceived by far-sighted men; and Oliver Cromwell's Parliaments had been elected on a reformed system, many petty boroughs being disfranchised, and representatives being given to Manchester, Leeds, and Halifax, which were then growing into importance. But after Cromwell's death the old system was silently restored. Among the politicians who saw the necessity of improving upon this state of things were the two Pitts, the younger of whom had three times brought forward plans of reform. But it was not until 1816 that,

mainly owing to the cheap publications of *William Cobbett*, Parliamentary Reform became a popular cry. Cobbett, whose *Twopenny Register* was read in every cottage in the manufacturing districts, was a self-taught man, and had been at one time a soldier. He was a powerful and violent political writer, and, even by the admission of an enemy, "one of the greatest masters of the English language." "Hampden Clubs" sprang up, in which universal suffrage and annual parliaments were advocated. These and more violent projects were discussed among the people, especially among artisans; and distress and political agitation led to riot and attempts at insurrection; while the "Manchester Massacre" roused wrath even among those who were ordinarily disposed to support the authorities. On its side the government party, scared at the temper of the people, adopted harsh and despotic measures for repressing sedition. Nevertheless, during the Regency and the reign of George IV., the question of Reform had been raised at intervals in Parliament, and the public desire for it continued to increase. This feeling had been strongly displayed at the elections for the new Parliament; and great was the indignation at finding from the King's speech and the language held by the prime minister, the Duke of Wellington, that no Reform was to be looked for from the government. *Earl Grey* had spoken in the House of Lords of the necessity for Reform, to which the Duke answered that the legislature and the system of representation possessed the full confidence of the country, and that not only would he not bring forward any measure of reform, but "as long as he held any station in the government of the country, he should always feel it his duty to resist such measures when proposed by others." Such was the ferment this caused, that the King was advised against going in state to dine at the Guildhall, as usual at

the beginning of a reign, and Wellington and Peel resigned office in a little more than a week afterwards, when they were succeeded by a Ministry under the leadership of Earl Grey, who announced that his objects would be Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform. On the 1st March, 1831, *Lord John Russell* (afterwards *Earl Russell*), on the part of the new government, brought in a Reform Bill, which was so much more sweeping than had been expected that it was received by the Opposition with mingled amazement and scorn. As a majority of the Commons voted for striking out that part of the Reform scheme which diminished the number of members of Parliament, the ministry prevailed on the King to dissolve. So great was the agitation within the walls of the House when the King was known to be at hand, that the scene reminded men "of the tumultuary dissolutions in the times of the Stuarts." "The most exciting moment of my public life," afterwards wrote Lord Campbell, then member for Stafford, "was when we cheered the guns which announced his Majesty's approach." A new House of Commons, elected to the cry of "*The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill*," sent the desired measure up to the House of Lords, where it was rejected by a majority of forty-one. Incendiary fires, and riots at Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol, marked the autumn of 1831, whilst public excitement became general and intense. A third Reform Bill was brought in by the ministry, and passed by the Commons; but to carry it through the Lords would, it was thought, be a hopeless undertaking unless some forty new Peers who would support the Bill were created. As the King was unwilling to do this, the ministers resigned; but in less than a fortnight, during which threats of refusing payment of taxes were made and the House of Commons was petitioned to grant no supplies till the Bill was passed, Lord Grey and his friends returned to office

New Peers however were not created, as the King, using his influence over the hostile noblemen, induced them to drop their further opposition; and the Bill became law, June 7, 1832. Reform Bills were also passed for Scotland and Ireland. By the English Act, fifty-six boroughs were disfranchised, and forty-three new ones, together with thirty county constituencies, were created; a 10*l.* householder qualification was established in boroughs, and the county franchise was extended from forty-shilling freeholders to copy-holders, leaseholders, and tenant occupiers of premises of certain values. The Duke of Wellington, expressing the feelings of the Tories, said, "We can only hope for the best; we cannot foresee what will happen; but few people will be sanguine enough to imagine that we shall ever again be as prosperous as we have been." The Reformed Parliament, the object of great hopes and greater fears, met January 29, 1833. Setting vigorously to work, it passed several important Acts; without however realizing the forebodings of the anti-reform party, who had thought a revolution was at hand. It was about the beginning of this reign that the Tories took the name of *Conservatives*, as denoting that they sought to preserve the ancient institutions of the country. Their political opponents were already known by the name of *Liberals*. That of *Radical* had come up about 1818, being then applied to those who desired a *radical reform* of Parliament.

2. **Abolition of Slavery.**—Although the slave-trade had been put down wherever British power reached, negro-slavery still existed in our Colonies. In August, 1833, was passed a measure of which Great Britain is justly proud—the *Act for the Abolition of Slavery*, at the cost of twenty millions sterling in compensation to the slave-owners.

3. **Death of King William.**—The King died at Windsor Castle, June 20, 1837. By his wife *Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen*, he had two

daughters, who both died in infancy. He was succeeded on the throne of *Great Britain and Ireland* by her present Majesty, *Alexandrina Victoria*, the only child of his brother Edward, Duke of Kent. The succession to the throne of Hanover, which in 1815 had been raised to the rank of a Kingdom, had been limited to the male line, and that country therefore passed to *Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland*, fifth son of George III.

4. **Legislation.**—Among the important Acts of this reign are those for the amendment of the *poor-laws* and for the regulation of *municipal corporations*. The system of laws for the relief of the poor, founded upon an Act passed in Queen Elizabeth's reign, had been so injudiciously worked, and so many abuses had crept in, that it did more harm than good. A system, in appearance harsher, but in reality more beneficial, was now established by the *Poor Law Amendment Act*, passed in 1834. In the next year was passed the *Municipal Corporation Act* for the reform of boroughs in England and Wales. In many towns the right to the freedom, citizenship, or burgess-ship, had come to be restricted to a very small class, while the majority of the householders and ratepayers had no part whatever in the government of their town. The governing body was in many cases self-elected and for life; and there was great mismanagement and waste of the corporate property. By the new Act a better system was established for a hundred and seventy-eight of the principal boroughs, not including London; all inhabitant householders who had lived a certain time in the place, and paid poor and borough rates, were to be burgesses; and the governing council was to consist of a mayor, aldermen and councillors, these last being elected by the burgesses, while the mayor and aldermen were to be elected by the council itself. By an Act passed in 1833 alterations were made in the constitution of

the East India Company. The government of the British territories in India remained in its hands, but it ceased to be a trading body.

5. **The Houses of Parliament.**—On the 16th October, 1834, the Houses of Parliament were accidently burned down. Westminster Hall, which they adjoined, was happily saved from destruction. In the next reign the Parliament Houses were replaced by the present building, the work of *Sir Charles Barry.*

6. **Railways. George Stephenson.** — The autumn of 1830 is memorable for the opening of the *Liverpool and Manchester Railway*, on which passenger carriages were drawn by locomotive steam-engines. Neither the road nor the engines were wholly new things; for as early as the seventeenth century wooden tramways had been used in collieries for the conveyance of coal to the place of shipment, and in the course of the following century iron rails were laid down; while some of the improvers of the steam-engine had succeeded in turning it to locomotive purposes. But before *George Stephenson*, no one had made locomotives at once economical and efficient. He was a self-taught Northumbrian, who from an engine-fireman had risen to be engineer of a colliery near Killingworth, and who amongst his other inventions devised a safety-lamp for the use of miners, upon the same principle as that constructed about the same time by the great chemist *Sir Humphry Davy.* In 1822 Stephenson was employed to make the *Stockton and Darlington* line, upon which one of his engines drew a load of ninety tons at the rate of upwards of eight miles an hour. Still, with all that he had done, the advantages of locomotives were doubted, so that many would have preferred to use horses on the new Liverpool and Manchester line. But steam-power carried the day, and Stephenson and his son Robert constructed the famous engine "*Rocket*," the first high-speed locomotive of the

modern type. From that time dates the general use of railways and railway engines, whose promoters had once been jeered at for thinking that a speed of twenty miles an hour might possibly be attained with safety, and that stage-coaches and post-chaises would be superseded.

CHAPTER XLIV.

VICTORIA.

Queen Victoria; the Prince Consort (1)—*abandonment of the protective duties on corn; free-trade principles* (2)—*the Chartists* (3)—*wars in Asia and Africa; wreck of the Birkenhead* (4)—*the Crimean War; the Volunteers* (5)—*the Indian Mutiny; Empress of India* (6)—*Canada; Australasia; South Africa; dependent colonies* (7)—*legislation; penny postage; newspapers; Jews admitted to the House of Commons; parliamentary reform; municipal elections; legislation for Ireland; education* (8)—*Arctic voyages; the Franklin expedition; Alert and Discovery expedition; inventions* (9)—*literature* (10).

1. **Victoria, 1837.**—Although called to the throne in a time of political restlessness and discontent, Queen *Victoria*, then only eighteen years of age, was received by her subjects with warm loyalty; and throughout her reign she has ever been regarded with affection and respect in every part of her Empire. On the 10th February, 1840, her Majesty married her cousin, *Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.* The Prince Consort, whose public and private conduct gained him the respect of the whole nation, died December 14, 1861.

2. **The Repeal of the Corn Laws.**—The chief question of the time was the repeal of the laws laying heavy duties on the importation of foreign corn. Many people upheld these restrictions, on the

ground that home agriculture ought to be encouraged, or *protected*, by keeping up the price of corn; and that a country ought, as far as might be, to depend upon itself for its supply of food. On the other side, those who held Free-trade doctrines argued that the effect of the Corn Laws, so far as they were operative, was to set, for the benefit of the landowners, an artificial limit to the wealth and population of the kingdom in general. A number of zealous free-traders in 1839 formed an association, the *Anti-Corn-Law League*, which employed itself in enlightening, by speech and writing, the public mind as to the evil effect of *protective* laws. The League gradually made way in public opinion; but it was some years before its cause triumphed. In 1842 the leader of the Conservatives, Sir Robert Peel, then prime minister, proposed and carried a new corn law repealing that of 1828. A "sliding scale" of duties on the importation of foreign corn was maintained, but the duties were lowered. The next year Canadian corn was let in at a reduced fixed duty. At last, in 1846, when the failure of the potato-crop was threatening a fearful famine in Ireland, the League attained its end, Sir Robert Peel bringing in and carrying, to the dismay of many of his party, bills for abolishing, or reducing to a merely nominal amount, the duties on foreign corn, cattle, and other productions. This repeal of the corn duties, though carried in 1846, did not come into complete operation till 1849. The honour of the measure was attributed by Peel to *Richard Cobden*, the foremost of the free-trade politicians, whose doctrines—that every man and every nation should be free to buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest market, without the laws interfering to favour some particular class of producers—are now recognized and acted upon in Great Britain.

3. **The Chartists.**—Side by side with the Corn-Law struggle went the *Chartist* agitation. The

Chartists were for the most part working men, who suffered from the distress then generally prevailing, and who looked to further reforms in the system of parliamentary representation for the means of mending their condition. Their name came from their "*People's Charter*," the document in which they set forth their demands—universal suffrage (excluding however women), equal electoral districts, vote by ballot, annual parliaments, no property qualification for members, and their payment for their legislative services. After some rioting in 1839, the Chartists remained tolerably quiet until 1848, when, excited by the revolutions which took place that year in France and other parts of the Continent, they determined to make show of their strength. Mustering on the 10th of April on Kennington Common, they designed to march through London to the House of Commons, carrying a petition embodying their demands, which they boasted, though mistakenly, to bear more than five million signatures. This was to be presented by *Feargus O'Connor*, one of the members for Nottingham. Both the government and the great body of the people met the threatening movement with firmness. The Londoners, to the number of a quarter of a million, enrolled themselves as special constables; the Chartists were not allowed to recross the bridges in procession, and the whole affair passed off quietly, without the troops which the Duke of Wellington had posted out of sight, but at hand, having any need to show themselves. From that time the Chartists ceased to be of any importance as an organized body; but three of the reforms for which they contended have since been carried out by the Acts abolishing the property qualification, and granting well-nigh universal suffrage for men and vote by ballot.

4. **Wars in Asia and Africa.**—The wars of this reign hitherto have been waged in distant parts of the world. In 1840 England, together with other

powers, took the part of the Sultan of Turkey against his vassal *Mohammed Ali, Pasha of Egypt*, and Acre was bombarded and taken by the fleet under Admiral Sir Robert Stopford and Commodore Napier. In this action war-steamers were employed for the first time. In the same year a war with *China* arose out of the attempts of the Chinese Imperial Government to put down the contraband trade in opium carried on between India and that country. One of the results was the cession of the island of *Hong-Kong* to Great Britain. There were fresh quarrels with China in 1856, and again in 1860, when the allied English and French entered Pekin. A war which began in 1838 in *Afghanistan* is memorable for the disasters which befell the British troops in occupation of *Cabul.* The British-Indian government had taken up the cause of the dispossessed sovereign of Cabul, the actual ruler being believed to be intriguing with Russia against England. At first the war was successful. The gate of the stronghold of *Ghuznee* was blown open with gunpowder, and the fortress stormed and taken; the city of Cabul was entered in triumph; and British troops were left in occupation of the country; but being forced, by a rising of the natives, to retreat from Cabul in 1842, they were cut off, almost to a man, in the mountain passes. One officer alone, wounded and exhausted, reached Jellalabad, which was in possession of the English. After these misfortunes had been retrieved, a war with the *Ameers* or princes of *Sind* broke out in 1843, of which the result was the conquest of their country by *Sir Charles Napier*, a soldier trained in the Peninsular War, who further distinguished himself by the success with which, as Governor, he ruled the territory he had won. At the end of 1845, and again in 1848, there were wars with the *Sikhs* of the *Punjaub*, ended by the victory of *Goojerat*, won by *Lord Gough*, February 21st, 1849, and the annexation of the Punjaub to the British

dominions. To these was added, in 1852, the province of *Pegu*, taken from the Burman Empire. In South Africa there were wars with the *Kaffir* tribes on the frontiers of the *Cape Colony*, resulting in the annexation by the Colony of the district called *British Kaffraria*. The most noteworthy incident connected with the Kaffir War of 1850 was the wreck of the *Birkenhead* steamship, which, while conveying detachments from the 12th, 74th, and 91st regiments, struck at dead of night, February 25, 1852, on a reef of sunken rocks on the South African coast, and in less than half an hour went down. The men on board gave a noble example of discipline and self-sacrificing courage. "Every one," wrote one of the survivors, "did as he was directed, and there was not a murmur nor a cry among them till the vessel made her final plunge." The boats were filled with the women and children and pushed off; while the soldiers, in obedience to their officers, stood calmly on the sinking ship, awaiting almost certain death rather than endanger the safety of the boats by attempting to get into them. Out of more than six hundred soldiers and seamen, less than two hundred were saved. Among African wars are also to be noted the successful *Abyssinian Expedition*, sent out from India in 1867, under the command of *Sir Robert Napier* (created *Baron Napier of Magdala*), to rescue certain British subjects and other Europeans held captive by *Theodore, King of Abyssinia;* and the equally successful *Ashantee Expedition* of 1873, sent out, under the leadership of *Sir Garnet Wolseley*, to chastise the *Ashantees*, a warlike people near the *Gold Coast*, who had harassed tribes under our protection, and attacked the British castle of Elmina.

5. **The Crimean War. The Volunteers.**—In 1854 Great Britain and France, joined later on by *Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia*, engaged, on behalf of the Turks, in a war with Russia, which

was mainly carried on in the *Crimea*. The chief actions were the victories of the *Alma*, September 20, and of *Inkerman*, November 5, and the engagement at *Balaclava*, October 25. During the winter the British army investing the fortress of *Sebastopol*, being ill supplied with food or shelter, in the bitterest weather, underwent grievous suffering and loss. The siege lasted 349 days, at the end of which time the place was evacuated by the Russians in September, 1855; and in the course of the next year peace was made. Although Great Britain was at this time on friendly terms with France, which was then ruled by *Louis Napoleon*, a nephew of the first Buonaparte, some years later there was fear of a French invasion, and under the influence of this feeling the *Volunteer Force* was formed in 1859 for the defence of the country.

6. **The Indian Mutiny.**—Early in 1857 the mutiny of the *Sepoys*, or native soldiers of the East India Company's army, excited by a mistaken idea that some interference with their religion was intended, came like a thunder-clap upon the English. The regiments at *Meerut*, after killing a number of English men and women, marched into *Delhi*, where like slaughter was made among the English residents. The mutineers proclaimed the nominal *King of Delhi* as Emperor of Hindustan, he being the representative of the line of Mogul Emperors who had borne rule in India when first the Company established itself there. At *Cawnpore* the European garrison were treacherously slain, after having surrendered on terms to the rebel *Nana Sahib*, who, upon the approach of *General Henry Havelock's* troops, proceeded to murder all the English women and children then in his hands. After occupying Cawnpore, Havelock, who had inflicted many defeats upon the mutineers, succeeded, in company with *Sir James Outram*, in relieving the beleaguered garrison of *Lucknow*. There the two generals remained until *Sir Colin Campbell*, afterwards

Lord Clyde, came to their aid, and forcing his way in, brought off the garrison, together with the sick, the women, and children. The mutiny, which had threatened the overthrow of the British dominion, was put down in the course of the next year, and by Act of Parliament, August 2, 1858, the government of India was transferred from the Company to the Crown. Nearly twenty years later the Queen took the title of *Empress of India*, by which her Majesty was proclaimed at Delhi, January 1, 1877.

7. **The Colonies.**—In 1791, under Pitt's administration, *Canada* had been divided into two provinces, the old French colony east of the Ottawa being called *Lower Canada*, while the English colony to the west of that river formed the province of *Upper Canada*. Lower Canada having long been in a state of discontent, arising partly out of the disagreements between the French colonists and the more recent English settlers, soon after the Queen's accession the French Canadians broke into open revolt. The insurrection spread to Upper Canada, where also there was strife between the old settlers, mostly descendants of loyalists who had emigrated from the United States, and the new-comers. Peace however was before long restored, and in 1840 a new system of government was established, under which the two Canadas were united as one *Province of Canada*. At a later period, in 1867, the provinces of *Canada*, *Nova Scotia*, and *New Brunswick* were by statute federally united into one *Dominion* under the name of *Canada*. The old provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were restored under the names of *Ontario* and *Quebec*. A constitution was given them similar in principle to that of Great Britain and Ireland, the government being carried on in the Queen's name by a Governor-General and two Houses of Parliament. An outlying district in the region of the prairies was in 1870 formed into a new province under the name of *Manitoba*, and

added to the Dominion of Canada, which has been further enlarged by the incorporation in 1871 of *British Columbia*, and in 1873 of *Prince Edward Island*. The *Australian Colonies* have during the present reign formed for themselves constitutions framed on the British model. *Victoria*, a settlement founded about 1836, was made into a separate colony in 1850, and named after the Queen. Another colony, *Queensland*, was established in 1859. *New Zealand* also received a representative constitution in 1852, and the *Fiji Islands* were brought under British rule in 1874. In South Africa, *Natal*—so named in the fifteenth century by the Portuguese navigators who discovered it on the *natal* day of Christ—was declared a British colony in 1843. The *Cape Colony* has received an independent constitution, and has been gradually enlarged by the annexation of adjoining districts, the latest being the *Transvaal*. These three groups of colonies—Canadian, Australasian, and South African—though they owe allegiance to the sovereign of Great Britain, are practically almost independent nations. Besides these, there are a number of colonies and settlements in West Africa, the West Indies, and Asia, which remain under the control of the mother-country. Among the acquisitions of this reign may be mentioned the island of *Labuan*, ceded to us in 1846 by the Sultan of Borneo, and *Aden*, an Arabian port of which the East India Company had taken possession in 1838, and which, since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, has become an important commercial station.

8. **Legislation.**—In 1840 the scheme proposed by *Mr.*, afterwards *Sir Rowland Hill*, for the carriage of letters throughout the United Kingdom at uniform rates, now well known as the "*penny postage*," was put in practice. The immediate consequence was that the number of letters sent through the post was more than doubled. In 1855 the stamp-duty

on newspapers ceased to be compulsory; the effect of which was to reduce the price of newspapers, and thereby to increase the general understanding of and interest in political matters. In 1858 an Act was passed empowering either House of Parliament to modify, in the case of *Jews*, the oath then required to be taken by members. The House of Commons immediately availed itself of the Act, and thereby enabled a Jew, who had already been elected, to take his seat. In accordance with a prevalent desire for further parliamentary reforms, a new Reform Bill was in 1867 brought in and carried by the Conservative ministry then in power, of which the chiefs were the late *Earl of Derby* and *Mr. Disraeli* (since created *Earl of Beaconsfield*). By this, which became law August 15, 1867, a vote in parliamentary elections was given in boroughs to all men occupying houses within the borough and paying rates, and also to men occupying lodgings of the yearly value of 10*l*., and the county franchise was greatly extended. By an Act passed in 1872, votes in parliamentary elections are to be given by *ballot*, instead of by open voting, as theretofore. An Act passed in 1869 shortened the term of residence required as a qualification for the municipal franchise, and extended to women the right to vote in municipal elections. In 1869 and 1870 great changes were made in *Ireland* by measures carried by the Liberal ministry under the leadership of *Mr. Gladstone*. By one Act the *Irish Church* was disestablished; and by another, outgoing tenants became entitled to compensation in respect of improvements made by them on their holdings. Great efforts have been made to spread education among the people. The *Elementary Education Act*, 1870, orders that "there shall be provided for every school district a sufficient amount of accommodation in public elementary schools available for all the children resident in such district for whose elementary

education efficient and suitable provision is not otherwise made." The school fees for children whose parents are unable from poverty to pay the same may be remitted. In districts where the public school accommodation is insufficient, "school boards" are to be elected, whose duty it is to supply the deficiency. These boards are invested with great powers, among others that of making it compulsory upon parents to cause their children between the ages of five and thirteen to attend school.

9. **Discoveries and Inventions.**—From 1818 fresh efforts had been made to find a North-West passage, and *Sir Edward Parry* and *Sir John Franklin* explored far into the Arctic regions. Franklin's last expedition was made in 1845, and from this neither he nor his companions ever returned. After several expeditions under various leaders in search of him, in the course of which at least three North-West passages have been discovered, *Captain* (now *Sir Leopold*) *M'Clintock*, who went out in 1857, found at Point Victory a paper which had been left there in 1848 by the then survivors of the Franklin party, recording the death of Sir John in 1847, and the subsequent abandonment of their ice-bound vessels. In 1875 two vessels, the *Alert* and the *Discovery*, were sent out by the government on an expedition of Arctic exploration, the object being, if possible, to reach the North Pole. In this they were not successful, though the explorers planted the British flag in the highest latitude yet reached by man. The various branches of science have been cultivated with ardour and success during the present period. Early in the reign *photography* and *electric telegraphs* were brought into use ; the latter have since been greatly developed, and more than one submarine cable has been laid down from Ireland to America. The power of artillery and fire-arms has been vastly increased, and, as a necessary consequence, the "wooden walls of England"

have been replaced by *armoured* or *ironclad* war-steamers.

10. **Literature.**—Among authors (living writers not being taken into account), *William Makepeace Thackeray*, *Charles Dickens*, and *Lord Lytton* are to be noted as novelists. Thackeray excelled in satire upon the social meannesses and worldliness of well-to-do people. Dickens, who portrayed with great humour, sometimes degenerating into caricature, the ways and manners of a lower grade of society, more especially of the Londoners, is perhaps the most popular novelist of our day. Lord Lytton wrote both tales of contemporary fashionable life and romances of bygone ages; and his story of *Harold* is at once true in its main lines to fact, and a fine imaginary picture of the King who died on Senlac. *Charlotte Brontë*, a Yorkshire clergyman's daughter, who wrote under the name of "*Currer Bell*," was the authoress of some powerful novels. Poverty and home-sorrows made her life a hard one, and her tone is sad and gloomy. *Charles Kingsley*, poet, preacher, and novelist, first won notice by his tale of *Alton Locke*, written at the time of the Chartist troubles. In it he set forth the sufferings and hopes of working men, and pointed out that the Chartists, albeit misguided, were still honest men entitled to pity and sympathy. *Elizabeth Gaskell*, in her novel of *Mary Barton*, described the struggles and hardships of the working cotton-spinners of Manchester. *Harriet Martineau*, in the reign of William IV., when questions of political economy and social reform were in everybody's mind, brought out a series of tales—*Illustrations of Political Economy*—in which she made her fictions the means of expounding the truths of that science. The literature of our day is especially rich in tales and novels, the novel now holding the place once occupied by the drama, serving as the mirror of life and manners, and as the method in

which authors convey their thoughts on political and social questions. Our age has also its own style of poetry, in which the most notable names are those of men yet living. Historical literature has during the present century made great strides, owing to the growth of a spirit of research and criticism. Documents and manuscripts hitherto unknown or unheeded have been laid open to us, and the evidence on which history rests has been sought out and weighed with a care such as historians in the last century rarely bestowed. In this branch of study, *Thomas Arnold* and *George Grote* are distinguished for their histories of *Rome* and *Greece*, and *Henry Hart Milman*, *Dean of St. Paul's*, for his *History of Latin Christianity*. *Henry Hallam*, author of the *Constitutional History of England*, is characterized by his judicial impartiality; *Lord Macaulay*, who tells, from the point of view of a Liberal politician, the story of the Revolution of 1688, combines the brilliancy of romance with many of the best qualities of an historian. The labour and research of *John Mitchell Kemble*, who devoted himself to the study of the Old-English language, history, and antiquities, of *Sir Francis Palgrave*, the historian of the Normans, and of *John Lingard*, a Roman Catholic priest, whose chief work is carried down as far as the accession of William and Mary, have all tended to give us more accurate and vivid ideas of the earlier History of England.

INDEX.

A.

C.

D.

E.

F.

G.

H.

I.

J.

K.

M.

N.

O.

P.

Q.

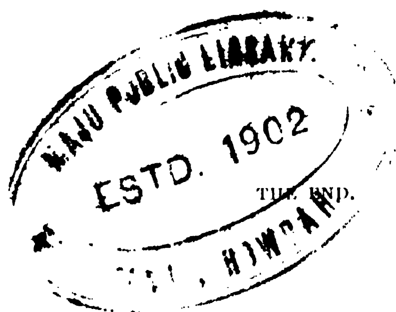
R.

S.

T.

Y.

Z.



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